



Minnesota State University Moorhead RED: a Repository of Digital Collections

Dissertations, Theses, and Projects

Graduate Studies

Fall 5-14-2021

Assessing the Influence of Mentorship on Faculty Job Satisfaction in Higher Education

Rachelle Hunt
huntra@mnstate.edu

Follow this and additional works at: <https://red.mnstate.edu/thesis>



Part of the [Educational Leadership Commons](#), and the [Higher Education Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Hunt, Rachelle, "Assessing the Influence of Mentorship on Faculty Job Satisfaction in Higher Education" (2021). *Dissertations, Theses, and Projects*. 518.
<https://red.mnstate.edu/thesis/518>

This Dissertation (799 registration) is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate Studies at RED: a Repository of Digital Collections. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations, Theses, and Projects by an authorized administrator of RED: a Repository of Digital Collections. For more information, please contact RED@mnstate.edu.

ASSESSING THE INFLUENCE OF MENTORSHIP ON FACULTY JOB SATISFACTION IN
HIGHER EDUCATION

By

Rachelle A. Hunt
B.S., North Dakota State University
M.Ed., Valley City State University
Ed.D., Minnesota State University Moorhead

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Dissertation Committee:
Ximena Suarez-Sousa, Ph.D., Committee Chair
Dawn Hammerschmidt, Ph.D., Committee Member
Jeffrey Moser, DBA, Committee Member
Erica Johnson, Ed.D., Committee Member

Minnesota State University Moorhead

May 2021

ASSESSING THE INFLUENCE OF MENTORSHIP ON FACULTY JOB SATISFACTION IN
HIGHER EDUCATION

by

Rachelle A. Hunt

has been approved

May 4, 2021

APPROVED:

Ximena Suarez-Sousa, Ph.D., Committee Chair

Dawn Hammerschmidt, Ph.D., Committee Member

Jeffrey Moser, DBA, Committee Member

Erica Johnson, Ed.D., Committee Member

ACCEPTED AND SIGNED:

Dr. Ximena Suarez-Sousa, Ph.D.
Committee Chair

Dr. Ok-Hee Lee, Ph.D.
Dean, College of Education and Human Services

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|---|-------------|
| LIST OF TABLES..... | vii |
| LIST OF FIGURES..... | viii |
| NOMENCLATURE | ix |
| DEDICATION | x |
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS | xi |
| ABSTRACT | xii |
| CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION..... | 1 |
| Introduction..... | 1 |
| Brief Literature Review | 1 |
| Statement of the Problem..... | 3 |
| Purpose of the Study | 6 |
| Research Questions..... | 7 |
| Definition of Variables..... | 7 |
| Significance of the Study | 9 |
| Research Ethics..... | 11 |
| Permission and IRB Approval | 11 |
| Informed Consent..... | 11 |
| Limitations | 12 |
| Conclusions..... | 13 |
| CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW | 15 |
| Introduction..... | 15 |
| Body of the Review | 16 |
| Job Satisfaction | 16 |
| Mentorship | 21 |
| Theoretical Framework..... | 35 |
| Research Questions..... | 37 |
| Conclusions..... | 37 |

| | |
|---|-----------|
| CHAPTER 3. METHODS | 39 |
| Introduction..... | 39 |
| Research Questions..... | 39 |
| Research Design | 39 |
| Setting | 41 |
| Participants..... | 43 |
| Sampling | 43 |
| Instrumentation | 44 |
| Data Collection..... | 50 |
| Data Analysis | 52 |
| Research Questions and System Alignment | 53 |
| Procedures..... | 54 |
| Ethical Considerations | 55 |
| Conclusions..... | 57 |
| CHAPTER 4: RESULTS | 58 |
| Purpose of the Study | 59 |
| Research Questions..... | 60 |
| Participants..... | 61 |
| Primary Research Question 1 Findings | 67 |
| Secondary Research Question 1 Findings | 72 |
| Secondary Research Question 2 Findings | 80 |
| Gender | 81 |
| Ethnicity | 82 |
| Highest Degree..... | 82 |
| Employment Status | 84 |
| Faculty Rank | 84 |
| Conclusion | 85 |
| CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS..... | 87 |
| Summary of the Findings..... | 88 |
| Discussion of Research Questions..... | 89 |
| Primary Research Question 1 | 89 |

| | |
|--|------------|
| Secondary Research Question 1 | 89 |
| Secondary Research Question 2 | 101 |
| Recommendations for Practice | 109 |
| Mentorship | 109 |
| Job Satisfaction | 111 |
| Recommendations for Further Research..... | 114 |
| Methodology | 114 |
| Sample Size | 114 |
| Instrumentation | 115 |
| Expansion of the Research Variables: Mentoring and Job Satisfaction..... | 116 |
| Financial Considerations | 116 |
| Conclusion | 117 |
| REFERENCES | 119 |
| APPENDIX A..... | 131 |
| APPENDIX B..... | 132 |
| APPENDIX C..... | 135 |
| APPENDIX D..... | 138 |
| APPENDIX E..... | 147 |
| APPENDIX F | 150 |
| APPENDIX G | 152 |
| APPENDIX H | 153 |
| APPENDIX I..... | 156 |

LIST OF TABLES

| | |
|----------------|----|
| Table 1 | 48 |
| Table 2 | 53 |
| Table 3 | 62 |
| Table 4 | 65 |
| Table 5 | 67 |
| Table 6 | 68 |
| Table 7 | 71 |
| Table 8 | 72 |
| Table 9 | 72 |
| Table 10 | 73 |
| Table 11 | 78 |
| Table 12 | 81 |
| Table 13 | 82 |
| Table 14 | 83 |
| Table 15 | 84 |
| Table 16 | 85 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| | |
|----------------|----|
| Figure 1 | 69 |
| Figure 2 | 70 |

NOMENCLATURE

| | |
|-------------|---|
| ACT | American College Testing |
| IRB | International Review Board |
| JSS | Job Satisfaction Survey |
| JSS-2 | Job Satisfaction Survey 2 |
| MES | Mentoring Effectiveness Scale |
| MET | Mentoring Evaluation Tool |
| Pearson r | Pearson Product-Moment Correlation |
| r | Correlation coefficient |
| SPSS | Statistical Package for the Social Sciences |

DEDICATION

To my Dad, the most influential mentor of my life. You instilled in me passion and compassion with your gestures towards others, especially your family. You taught me life lessons over the years even when you thought I was not looking, many nonverbal or unintentional. Thank you, Dad, for gifting me with these moments. Because of you, I know the love of a father, but most of all, thank you for loving with all your heart. I miss you every day.

To my Mom, the strongest and most selfless woman I know. You raised four daughters with grace, sacrifice, and unconditional love. Your strength is subtle yet powerful and fierce. You taught me the importance of humility, responsibility, and respect. You instilled in me the power of education as I watched you go back to school and complete an additional degree while keeping your family first. I love your heart and commitment. Thank you for being my Mom and a constant guiding light.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to sincerely thank my doctoral advisor, Dr. Ximena Suarez-Sousa, for your selfless commitment to seeing your students succeed. Your dedication and constant support were a guiding light during some of the cloudiest moments. The time you spent reviewing, providing feedback, and consulting with me was time spent away from your family. I do not take that for granted. Thank you from the bottom of my heart for encouraging me and pushing me to become a better scholar.

My deepest thank you to my committee extraordinaire, Dr. Dawn Hammerschmidt, Dr. Jeff Moser, and my classmate Dr. Erica Johnson. Your thought-provoking questions, feedback, and expertise were incredibly important to me. I am thankful to have had you as colleagues and mentors during this process.

To my husband and boys, thank you is not enough for your love and encouragement. Rob, thank you for knowing when I needed time. Time to work and time to rest. You tirelessly sacrificed, so I could be at my best. To my boys, Dylan and Owen. I hope you appreciated doing homework with your mom as much as I did with you. I hope you embrace the meaning of life-long learning and continue to strive towards your goals.

In addition, I would like to thank my departmental colleagues. I am truly humbled by your support and willingness to share my responsibilities so I could accomplish the goal of achieving a doctorate. I cannot verbally express my gratitude enough but know how much it meant to have your encouragement, positive thoughts, and willingness to always lend me a listening ear.

Author: Rachelle A. Hunt

Advisor: Dr. Ximena Suarez-Sousa

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research study was to explore the influence of mentorship on faculty job satisfaction in higher education. The study followed a quantitative correlational study under the paradigm of post-positivism. Higher education faculty members require careful attention to components associated with workplace satisfaction or dissatisfaction, such as the presence of mentoring. Intrinsic and extrinsic factors play an integral role in job satisfaction, such as the induction experience and personal interactions. Out of 144 faculty members from a Midwest institution of higher education, 38 completed the questionnaires and five participated in the focus group discussion. Men and women participants were equal in numbers. The majority of the sample consisted of White, tenure-track, assistant professors with an average salary between \$50,000 - \$59,999. The data were collected via an online questionnaire and a focus group. There was no statistically significant correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction; however, the outcomes of the descriptive quantitative data, qualitative questions on the questionnaire and focus group strongly suggested an association between mentoring and job satisfaction among higher education faculty. Recommendations for practice include ensuring administrative commitment to creating and sustaining a mentoring culture. The faculty members need support by means of professional development opportunities to enhance emotional and cultural intelligence, understanding the adult learning process, and embracing the mentee-driven style of mentoring relationships.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The happiness and contentment of faculty play a significant role in the overall success of higher education (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011). The purpose of this dissertation is to explore the influence of mentorship on faculty job satisfaction at a Midwest institution of higher education. The fluctuating demographics of faculty in educational environments is prevalent and is continuing to diversify (Office of Planning, Evaluation and Policy Development, 2016), supporting the need to incorporate thoughtful mentoring. The dynamic faculty and student populations require careful attention to components associated with workplace satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Individual parts and a combination of facets play an integral role in faculty job satisfaction, such as induction experience and the overall climate of the university.

Brief Literature Review

Reviewing the literature from the previous decade, Decramer et al. (2013) uncovered evidence describing the climate and environment in higher education as turbulent. Societal demands of accountability, efficiency, and effectiveness are factors contributing to the environmental changes. In turn, higher education administration is forced to manage their employees and finances to meet the requirements of internal and external pressures (Decramer et al., 2013). Undesirable external demands and unstable environments contribute to a decline in faculty satisfaction, and the overall morale of the institution.

Employment satisfaction is essential as, theoretically, it increases community morale, work production, and academic success in higher education. Just as satisfaction is critical, it is unequivocally challenging to achieve with the political and societal complexity of higher education. Job satisfaction in academia is affected by similar sets of variables (e.g., gender, age,

family status, job characteristics) and by factors specific to the profession, such as disciplinary field, academic rank, and tenure (Albert et al., 2018).

Also, higher education's political and public scrutiny are growing due to recent demands for institutions to demonstrate accountability of faculty members' workload and productivity. The operations of higher education are matters of policy debates, adding to the existing pressures on faculty time and performance (Rosser, 2004). Because of the scrutiny, challenges arise that require altering the *status quo* of the day-to-day procedures, which can impact the satisfaction of employees. Alterations and change are difficult for faculty as they bring uncertainty and a fear of loss (Buller, 2015). Therefore, a greater understanding in maintaining a stable foundation of leadership and mentoring; the professional work lives and expectations of faculty members; and the overall demographics that contribute to job satisfaction need to be researched further (Rosser, 2004).

Faculty job satisfaction is a topic of conversation across various levels of higher education. Seifert and Umbach (2008) provide a compelling statement: "Job satisfaction is a key predictor of intention to remain in or leave an academic position" (p. 357). Academic faculty are vital in upholding the institution's mission and vision and instill professional values in colleagues and students. For those reasons, it is critical to retain talented faculty who contribute to student and institutional success.

Attention to employee satisfaction and facilitating a positive institutional culture is one way to foster personal and professional growth. Faculty are a source for a successful education system by contributing to research, providing service to the institution, engaging in professional development, and expert teaching skills in their discipline. Consequently, it is critical for administrators to retain quality rich academic personnel (Stankovska et al., 2017).

According to the literature, job satisfaction and mentorship appear mutually exclusive. Informal and formal mentoring relationships promote socialization, learning, career advancement, psychological adjustment, and preparation for leadership (Johnson, 2016). In comparison, faculty members lacking mentoring relationships experience dissatisfaction, lack of commitment, social isolation, and a decrease in career advancement opportunities (Johnson, 2016).

For mentorship to occur, relationships require interaction between “...an experienced and a less-experienced person using formal and/or informal structures to attain personal and professional growth” (Sheridan et al., 2015, p. 424). Informal mentoring relationships transpire organically among peers when two or more colleagues make a connection, build trust and rapport, and provide reciprocal professional and personal support. However, institutions may utilize formal mentoring programs that are organizationally sanctioned with defined expectations and outcomes (Sheridan et al., 2015) by assigning a mentor-mentee relationship generating a process-oriented or product-oriented relationship (Zachary, 2005).

Overall, mentoring relationships support a cohesive and collaborative work environment. The connections boost campus morale, increase productivity, and improve employee satisfaction. Collegial support, development of a trusting relationship, positive and encouraging feedback are all key components to nurture professional development between colleagues and enhance the pleasantries of a unified organization (Gaskin et al., 2003).

Statement of the Problem

The use of formal and informal mentoring programs is increasing across institutions of higher education (Lunsford et al., 2017). At the participating institution, newly hired faculty members tend to be novice educators and new to the higher education environment. The

expectations of the faculty member's position may pose overwhelming experiences and the need for appropriate mentorship to acclimatize to the institution and provide career support to foster job satisfaction (Kupersmidt et al., 2019).

The participating Midwest institution of higher education is one of four four-year regional institutions within a university system which also houses five two-year institutions and two four-year research institutions. Currently, the institution does not offer a formal mentoring program for novice or experienced faculty members. A first year reading group and informational meetings on the first day are the extent of mentoring occurring at the university level. The induction and maintenance of faculty members occur informally at the departmental level, if at all. In the past, new faculty members gravitated towards one individual in the department and, subconsciously, an informal mentoring relationship organically developed. The experienced faculty member answered questions regarding organizational practices and expectations, the evaluation, tenure, and promotion procedures, the utilization of the learning management system, and day-to-day departmental operations.

Unfortunately, experienced faculty members at the participating institution of higher education are typically not trained in proper mentoring skills and do not receive release time and professional development opportunities to acquire mentoring skills. Time to adequately mentor is substantial and can lead to burnout if the mentor does not receive release time or professional development skills (Johnson, 2016; Zachary, 2005). The participating Midwest institution of higher education encompasses 12 departments. Informal or formal mentoring opportunities do not occur in all of the departments, leaving incoming faculty to navigate their new environment alone, or reach outside of their department faculty or institution.

Previous formal mentoring initiatives did not come to fruition or were not viewed as successful, according to current administration (personal communication, May 27, 2019). The institution is a small liberal arts university with a minimum academic hierarchical structure including the president, three vice presidents, and the 12 department chairs. The institution does not utilize colleges or deans, with the exception of the School of Education and Graduate Studies. The department chairs are all active professors carrying teaching loads that deduct their chair release time. The minimal academic hierarchical structure puts significant workload demands on all faculty to fulfill the service and governance responsibilities to ensure a successful operation.

Due to the workload requirements, previous formal mentoring initiatives dissolved as it put a strain on current faculty. Initiatives included mentor-mentee match-ups intradepartmental and interdepartmentally (personal communication, May 27, 2019). Administration received feedback that there was a lack of follow-through from both the mentor and mentee, mentors were experiencing burnout, and there was no training provided or development of formal program outcomes by the institution. The mentoring program discontinued not for a lack of trying, but from an unintentional lack of resources including financial, time, and human capital (personal communication, May 27, 2019).

Theoretically, the inclusion of mentoring relationships increases faculty confidence, satisfaction, and enhances the overall culture of the organization. Faculty satisfaction contributes to the successful operation of an institution of higher education which allows the institution to train individuals in various disciplines and service areas to carry the economic and social stability of the institution's community (Pfund et al., 2016).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the influence of mentorship on faculty job satisfaction in higher education. The goal of mentoring is to support faculty in achieving work-life balance as well as professional career advice (Lunsford et al., 2017), and cultivate an academic presence that supports, develops, and further advances faculty members' professional skills to feel part of an inviting community (Phillips & Dennison, 2015). The collegiality, career advice, and personal and professional support all contribute to job satisfaction. One of the most important and notable outcomes of faculty with high levels of job satisfaction is producing higher levels of teaching and cultivating an educational environment to promote student success (Crisci et al., 2019).

All too commonly, new faculty face concerns regarding the feeling of seclusion and lack of support and guidance during their early academic years. The need for direction is especially important as novice faculty feel that they are isolated in situations with few resources (Phillips & Dennison, 2015). The feeling of isolation is evident in research institutions where obtaining tenure is based off a "publish or perish" approach.

Intentional mentoring, formal or informal, may address issues facing higher education today such as recruitment and retention of diverse faculty, and job satisfaction. "Retention and recruitment have been found to be key elements for increasing minority and ethnic faculty representation, and mentoring has been found to be especially beneficial in this regard" (Phillips & Dennison, 2015, p. 2).

An additional issue is the current financial strains on institutions of higher education. Even more than ever, academic institutions need to be cognizant of cost containment during the current economic turmoil in higher education. Mentoring programs have the potential to address

job satisfaction, recruitment and retention issues, and alleviate costs of hiring new faculty (Phillips & Dennison, 2015).

Research Questions

Primary RQ:

1. What is the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction for faculty members in a Midwest institution of higher education?

Secondary RQ:

1. What is the importance of mentoring relationships for faculty at a Midwest institution of higher education?
2. How does the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction become impacted by demographic variables?

Definition of Variables

The following are the variables of study:

Predictor Variable - Mentoring

Constitutive Definition: While there is no professional consensus on a formal definition of mentoring, Berk et al. (2005) proposed the following:

A mentoring relationship is one that may vary along a continuum from informal/ short-term to formal/long-term in which faculty with useful experience, knowledge, skills, and/or wisdom offers advice, information, guidance, support, or opportunity to another faculty member or student for that individual's professional development. (Note: This is a voluntary relationship initiated by the mentee.). (p. 67)

Berk et al. (2005) constructed a list of desirable attributes of a faculty mentor including (a) expertise; (b) professional integrity; (c) honesty, (d) accessibility; (e) approachability; (f)

motivation; (g) respect by peers in field; and (h) supportiveness and encouragement. The list of desirable characteristics aligns with outcomes from several notable researchers in the realm of mentorship (Johnson, 2016; Kiel, 2019; Phillips & Dennison, 2015; Zachary, 2005; and Zachary, 2012).

Operational Definition: For this research study, the evaluation of mentoring occurs with the use of the Mentorship Effectiveness Scale (MES) (see Appendix C). The MES is a six-point Likert scale developed by Berk et al., in 2002 and reformatted in 2005 and 2009 (personal communication, April 25, 2020). The answer options range from disagree strongly to agree strongly while omitting a neutral option to facilitate an agree or disagree answer.

Berk and contributors (2005) developed the MES for the Johns Hopkins University School of Nursing as an instrument for mentees to rate their perception of their mentorship experiences based off the perceived effectiveness of their mentor. The MES instrument is derived by 12 statements from the identified list of desirable characteristics and responsibilities of a mentor (Berk et al., 2005). The scoring of items is on a 0-5-point quantitative scale. A response of strongly disagree receives a score of zero and strongly agree delineates a score of five. The instrument's total scoring value is from 0-60 points (Berk et al., 2005).

Outcome Variable - Job satisfaction

Constitutive Definition: In Paul E. Spector's 1997 book, *Job Satisfaction: Application, Assessment, Causes, and Consequences*, he defines job satisfaction as "...simply how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. It is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs" (p. 2). Spector refers to Locke's (1976) Range of Affect Theory (the theoretical framework associated with this study) that job satisfaction is defined as an emotional-affective response to a job or job responsibilities (1985).

In 1985, Spector developed the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) as a result of growing attention to employee satisfaction from the previous 10 years. Spector (1985) sought an effective way to generalize job satisfaction scales to include human services, as the current scales for that time period were from industrial findings. “The development of the JSS was predicated on the theoretical position that job satisfaction represents an affective or attitudinal reaction to a job” (Spector, 1985, p. 694). Spector found that intention of quitting, the perceptions of the job and supervisor traits, and employment commitment as the strongest correlations.

Operational Definition: For this study, faculty satisfaction is measured using the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) from Spector (1985). Spector developed the JSS questionnaire to evaluate employee’s attitudes regarding the dimensions of job satisfaction applicable to human service, public, and nonprofit organizations (see Appendix C).

Significance of the Study

Identifying predictors of job satisfaction, such as mentorship, are of interest at institutions of higher education. Notable resources allude to a correlation between job satisfaction, retention, work production, and increasing community morale (Albert et al., 2018). “Individuals who receive adequate mentoring have greater satisfaction in the workplace and clearer direction for scholarly endeavors, while organizations benefit from enhanced retention and recruitment; these effects culminate in a richer learning environment for students” (Sheriden et al., 2015, p. 424).

Dr. Lois Zachary (2005) describes that the focus on mentoring as a means to transfer or hand down organizational knowledge from one generation to another; in other words, a way to foster institutional memory. However, the hierarchical transfer of knowledge and information from an older, more experienced person to a younger, less experienced person is no longer the prevailing mentoring paradigm for mentoring relationships. Interestingly, Manathunga (2007)

discusses the possible adverse effects of formal mentoring programs regarding power, control, and boundary-crossing from either the mentee, mentor, or both parties.

However, to sustain a developed mentoring culture, the mentoring effort, the culture, and the organizational practice must align with one another (Zachary, 2005). “The current mentoring practices evolved from a product-oriented model (characterized by transfer of knowledge) to a process-oriented relationship (involving knowledge acquisition, application, and critical reflection)” (Zachary, 2005, p. 2). A mentoring culture embraces individual and organizational learning by facilitating growth and development. Trusted relationships facilitate a deepened connection with colleagues and enrich the productivity of the organization (Zachary, 2005). An increase in productivity theoretically supports an organization to maximize time, effort, and resources to promote efficient and effective outcomes.

The emphasis of this study is to identify the relational workplace needs of faculty at a Midwest institution of higher education to encourage a mentoring culture and facilitate mentoring efforts throughout the institution. The significance of the study is to promote adequate induction of new faculty members, professional growth, organizational productivity, and an overall cohesive environment aligned with the mission and vision of the institution. The Midwest institution of higher education boasts as being learner-centered encouraging ethical service, academic scholarship in addition to preparing students to succeed as educators, leaders, and engaged citizens in an increasingly complex and diverse society.

Faculty perceptions of the strengths, gaps, and importance of informal and formal mentoring relationships are critical for the implementation of professional development opportunities. The professional development opportunities may foster meaningful mentoring

relationships and enhance job satisfaction, faculty retention, and organizational culture (Galanek & Campbell, 2019).

Research Ethics

Permission and IRB Approval

To conduct this study, the researcher received Minnesota State University Moorhead's Institutional Review Board (IRB) Exempt approval on August 16, 2019 to ensure the ethical conduct of research involving human subjects (Mills & Gay, 2019). Likewise, the participating Midwest institution of higher education authorized and granted IRB Exempt approval on January 23, 2020 (see Appendix A). On April 23, 2020, the Minnesota State University Moorhead's IRB approved an addendum request to include a focus group to supplement the quantitative data.

Informed Consent

Inclusion of the informed consent letter to participate in the Qualtrics questionnaire occurred during the initial email invitation and every subsequent email request (see Appendix B). The informed consent letter included an invitation to participate in the focus group. Official informed consent was obtained when participants entered the Qualtrics questionnaire, read the informed consent document and thorough description of the study. To enter the official questionnaire, the participant selected *I understand and agree to participate*. Absolutely no data were collected until the participant manually selected the *I understand and agree to participate* option. An online acceptance to enter and answer the questionnaire added anonymity and confidentiality of the participants. By selecting *I understand and agree to participate* did not assume the participant planned to volunteer to contribute as a focus group member. Participants submitted their name and contact information, if they choose at the end of the survey to be considered as a member of the focus group.

Limitations

The limitations of the research included the possibility of not recruiting enough participants, creating a small sample. The researcher implemented a convenience sampling technique with one institution of higher education. The results were not applicable to all universities; therefore, decreasing the ability to generalize the outcomes of the study. Further compromising the small sample size was the COVID-19 pandemic. The pandemic required faculty members to transition to an online, synchronous, or hybrid course offerings. This transition created an additional workload to overcome the learning curve of using multiple technology systems for a single class. The additional workload may have decreased the faculty member's interest in completing the questionnaire.

Participants may not have answered the questions truthfully or may be swayed by their demeanor at the time of completion. The participants also self-reported on questionnaires that required subjective answers associated with emotional and experiential responses. Although anonymity and confidentiality were of utmost importance, the participant may have chosen not to contribute due to identification concerns resulting in a negative professional impact.

Additionally, the participant may have experienced fatigue and did not complete the questionnaire, contributing to the attrition of the study. Several participants started the questionnaire but did not finish. The total questions, from the three sections: Demographics, Mentorship Effectiveness Scale (MES), and Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) equaled 66 questions with a completion time of approximately 15 minutes. Furthermore, the participant may not have acknowledged or realized a mentoring relationship existed, according to the provided definitions.

The researcher recommended providing examples of how mentoring relationships can exist in addition to the definitions on the questionnaire. The researcher received a few emails

requesting a further explanation of how the questionnaire and researcher defined a mentoring relationship. The questionnaire included the broad definition of mentoring and the definitions for informal and formal mentoring. However, clarifications were sought out by participants as to what qualifies as a mentoring relationship. In addition to emails requesting clarification, the researcher was notified the invitation emails were located in some of the faculty members' *other* inbox in their institution email system, furthering the likelihood that some members did not receive or view the invitation to participate.

Lastly, the research design included a focus group discussion which consisted of five faculty members from the participating Midwest institution of higher education. If by chance, not enough faculty members volunteered to participate in the focus group, the researcher would have utilized faculty members from another regional Midwest institution of higher education.

Conclusions

Current research discusses the personal and organizational benefits of mentoring relationships and the potential impact on job satisfaction. As a regional institution, the Midwest institution of higher education historically employs novice or junior level faculty members with minimal experience in the higher education environment. Informal mentoring may foster relationships to provide personal and professional growth in addition to familiarizing themselves to the demands of their new setting. The significance of the study is to promote professional growth, develop induction opportunities for novice faculty members, increase organizational productivity, and foster a connected atmosphere supported by the mission and vision of the institution.

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the effects of mentoring on job satisfaction, particularly with faculty from a Midwest institution of higher education. The researcher will seek

to address three research questions: (a) What is the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction for faculty members in a Midwest institution of higher education?; (b) What is the importance of mentoring relationships for faculty at a Midwest institution of higher education?; (c) How does the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction become impacted by demographic variables?

Mentoring refers to a mutually beneficial relationship occurring between individuals and in a professional setting, mentoring can facilitate creativity, confidence, growth, and connection with the organization and colleagues (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine et al., 2019). Job satisfaction is challenging to define as different intrinsic and extrinsic factors motivate individuals (Johnson, 2016). However, Duggah and Ayaga (2014) state that satisfaction is an emotional feeling resulting from the positive appraisal of one's job or workplace experiences. Job satisfaction is often associated with factors such as pay, co-worker relationships, promotion, and environment, to name to a few.

A few noted limitations may occur due to the current length of the questionnaire and the threat of not recruiting enough participants. The researcher will make every effort to address the possible limitations of the study by including clear definitions and thorough instructions for completion and intentions of the study.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Institutions of higher education are embarking on pivotal economic times. Research supports the notion and trickle-down effect between the relationships of mentoring, job satisfaction, and employee retention lowering the cost to hire for institutions. The purpose of this study is to evaluate the influence of mentorship, informal or formal, on the perception of job satisfaction at a Midwest institution of higher education.

The following literature review provides an overview of the current research relating to mentorship and job satisfaction. The demographics of faculty in higher education are evolving and require intentional observation to offer appropriate resources that align with the needs of employees. The literature on job satisfaction takes into account several facets associated with perceived employee satisfaction. The facets include tenure and non-tenured faculty, compensation, work-life balance, gender, and age of the faculty. Although job satisfaction is a subjective phenomenon, the research associates a high probability of faculty retention with an increase in faculty job satisfaction (Bateh & Hyliger, 2014).

The mentoring component evaluates informal and formal mentoring relationships and the evolution of mentoring. Mentoring is transitioning from a mentor, process-driven, relationship into a mentee, learner-driven, relationship to encourage the mentee to take ownership of their career goals and personal accomplishments (Zachary, 2012). Research also shows the importance of understanding and practicing cultural and emotional intelligence, levels of learning and awareness of the four phases of mentoring (Johnson, 2016).

Body of the Review

Job Satisfaction

The idealization of satisfaction in one's job and what it means to them is subjective among individuals. A career is a professional journey that meets the needs of the individual's passions; however, a job is work performed to earn money for life's basic needs (Indeed, 2019). Satisfaction fulfills the wishes, expectations, needs, and pleasure derived from one's experiences (Lexico, 2020). Satisfaction in a career and job are not mutually exclusive. One can exist without the other, they can exist together, or they may not at all exist. Together, job satisfaction melds the two to generate a sense of contentment an employee has with their job (Singh & Sinha, 2013).

History. The history of job satisfaction research is complex; however, Edwin A. Locke reviews the historical overview in *The Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction* (1976). According to Locke, systematic studies on job satisfaction did not begin until the 1930s. Before the 1930s, there was an interest in understanding employees' cooperation and self-interest with their view of management (Locke, 1976).

Taylor, an early scholar, accepted the philosophy that the employee with the "...highest possible earnings with the least amount of fatigue would be satisfied and productive" (Locke, 1976, p. 1298). The concept of fatigue reduction became a novel construct starting during World War I through the 1930s. The Industrial Health and Fatigue Research Board in Great Britain investigated effects of work hours in relation to time for break on fatigue and performance. Later, Germany and the United States joined the efforts to study environmental factors on fatigue (Locke, 1976). Soon after, the initiatives on fatigue changed over to evaluating "attitudes" and

moods. The change stemmed from the results of the Hawthorne studies because employees did not respond to changes made, regarding fatigue, to their work environment (Locke, 1976).

Eventually, the Hawthorne studies and studies on leadership transitioned into the Human Relations movement during World War II. The Human Relations movement was pivotal in stressing the critical dyad of the supervisor and the employees in determining job satisfaction and productivity (Locke, 1976).

According to Stankovska et al. (2017), job satisfaction is complex, in nature, due to the relation of several factors including personal, social, cultural, environmental, and financial. Job satisfaction is referred to as cognitive in nature by enabling positive attitudes or emotional feelings acquired through work or related experiences. Job satisfaction also gains notoriety due to the significant correlations associated with job performance (Fu & Deshpande, 2014; Organ & Near, 1985). Research suggests employees leave a position at a higher rate when they feel unappreciated and do not receive recognition (Sahl, 2017). Appreciation and recognition from colleagues are job satisfaction predictors that are less studied than salary and workload; however, evidence shows they are relevant sources of job satisfaction (Sahl, 2017).

The ever-changing faculty and student demographics require careful attention to components associated with workplace satisfaction or dissatisfaction: gender, tenure versus non-tenured faculty, and generational gaps among employees contribute to the investigation of job satisfaction and organizational culture. Job satisfaction improves employee retention, therefore, supports universities to achieve adequate faculty positions (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). In 2009, Wong and Heng noted that a five percent increase in faculty retention resulted in as much as a 65 percent increase in productivity and a ten percent reduction in overall costs (as cited in Bateh & Hyliger, 2014).

People are independently motivated and satisfied by different facets occurring in their life, at that moment, which makes job satisfaction challenging to define. However, “Job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Dugguh & Ayaga, 2014, p.11). Pay, work, promotion, supervision, environment, and relationships with co-workers comprise a set of predictors for job satisfaction (Stankovksa et al., 2017).

Individual components and a combination of facets play an integral role in faculty job satisfaction. Faculty appointment status, demographics, and contractual expectations are three very different realms in higher education; however, all three have a direct or indirect impact on perceived job satisfaction (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011). Narrowing the confines associated with job satisfaction helped to limit the number of literature returns, but also refined the search to include the most represented categories in higher education.

Tenure versus Non-Tenure Faculty. The general faculty contractual status in higher education are tenured and non-tenured (pre-tenure) appointments. Each of these roles are generally accompanied by salaries and benefits that align with the rank and years of service towards the institution. Interestingly, one investigation found that tenured faculty members were less satisfied with the salary, benefits, and other rewards in comparison to non-tenured faculty (Ott & Cisneros, 2015). Non-tenured faculty were, in turn, less happy with their autonomy and sense of collegiality in their associated departments (Ott & Cisneros, 2015) and reported dissatisfaction with career advancement and professional development opportunities (Saleh & Bista, 2014).

Ott and Cisneros (2015) presented consistent and robust data to support the following: “For individual faculty to commit to their institutions, colleges and universities must demonstrate

reciprocal commitment by constructing supportive working conditions and policies that are consistently applied across departments” (p. 16). The institution can demonstrate commitment by striving to honor market value pay and foster a favorable climate with a greater sense of collegiality.

Although the research identified areas of dissatisfaction, the authors unveiled points of satisfaction among tenured and non-tenured faculty. In general, faculty, regardless of status, felt a sense of attachment to their campuses; however, tenured faculty demonstrated a stronger commitment to their institution in comparison to non-tenured faculty (Ott & Cisneros, 2015). Non-tenured faculty respects the institution during their employment, but have a higher rate of attrition, especially for females. Tenured faculty are committed due to their longevity of employment and possible security of tenure (August & Waltman, 2004). Not only do tenured faculty report higher satisfaction concerning employment, but additionally report higher satisfaction with teaching environments, educational facilities, research opportunities, service and scholarship, professional development, university leadership, and collegiality (Saleh & Bista, 2014). The literature provides strong data and the need to close the gap between tenured and non-tenured faculty regarding job satisfaction.

Gender. Gender equity and equality join employment status at the forefront of job satisfaction in current research. Unfortunately, women are underrepresented in academia and generally employed at less elite institutions and in the less prestigious disciplines (August & Waltman, 2004). Not only are women underrepresented, but they are disproportionately represented in positions that lack job security and garner inequitable wages such as full-time, non-tenure-track, and instructor or lecturer positions (August & Waltman, 2004). In addition, female faculty reported lower levels of campus commitment to professional priorities and lower

levels of administrative relations and support on campus (Sheets et al., 2018). These factors may contribute to the phenomenon that women have higher rates of attrition when compared to male colleagues.

Interestingly, Saleh and Bista (2014) contradict the general findings by reporting “no statistically significant difference between male and female faculty members regarding their perceptions of teaching environment and facilities, research and scholarship, career development, campus commitment, pay and benefits, leadership roles and collegiality” (p. 106). However, an alternative article reported women requested comparable salary, good relations with the department chair, an equal level of department involvement and influence, student relations, the quality of mentorship, and the departmental climate as reliable indicators for improvement in workplace satisfaction (August & Waltman, 2004). The data suggests a marked difference between gender satisfaction but provides possible solutions to bridge the gap.

Generational. Higher education is embarking on generational transitions regarding faculty positions. The Baby Boomer generation is nearing retirement, and Generation X faculty members are filling in the gaps. Historically, individuals raised in different generations had different approaches to their personal and professional work-life balance and created a perceived difference between the generations.

According to an interview conducted by Helms (2010), generation differences occurred by the formality of student encounters and comfort levels with technology. Even though gaps were identified regarding interactions with students, interviews discovered no personal clashes among different generations of faculty (Helms, 2010). The perceived conflict among generations occurred due to stereotypes of Generation X faculty members. However, Helms was pleased to

report that Generation X faculty are committed to their jobs and institutions, they value interdisciplinary opportunities, develop mentoring relationships, and value collegiality.

However, Miller et al. (2016) identified associate and full professors as seasoned employees when compared to newly appointed assistant professors. The authors identified associate and full professors as less satisfied with academic leadership than assistant professors partly due to their expectations and academic memory. In contrast, veteran and seasoned faculty (likely with higher rank) demonstrated higher satisfaction with service morale, their balance of faculty responsibilities, and their expected workload requirements (Sheets et al., 2018). The authors' theory is as faculty members' progress through the life cycle or seasons of their academic life; they seem to become more critical of the decision-making process and the priorities set by the leaders as well as the opportunities awarded to them to provide input in setting these priorities. Individual successes drive the rewards for these faculty members instead of the immediacy of tenure and promotion (Miller et al., 2016).

Mentorship

A contributor to job satisfaction is the aspect of mentorship. "Individuals who receive adequate mentoring have greater satisfaction in the workplace and clearer direction for scholarly endeavors, while organizations benefit from enhanced retention and recruitment..." (Sheridan et al., 2015, p. 424). A primary focus of mentoring is on career development and growth for both the mentor and the mentee. Mentoring is one of the most powerful forms of professional support (Ragins & Kram, 2007; Zachary, 2009). Kiel (2019) stresses the importance of mentoring faculty in higher education due to an increase in diverse employees, facilitating positive social dynamics, fostering productivity, encouraging focused career development, and personal growth.

History. The evolution of mentoring over the years is apparent throughout the literature (Johnson, 2016; Kiel, 2019; Kram, 1983; Zachary, 2005; & Zachary, 2012). However, a core component is consistent throughout the refinement of mentoring relationship's definition "...and distinguishes it from other types of personal relationships is that mentoring is a developmental relationship that is embedded within the career context" (Ragins & Kram, 2007, p. 5).

The history of mentoring originates in Greek mythology from Homer's *Odyssey*. The male character Mentor was a wise advisor that Odysseus entrusted to protect and guide his son; however, the female goddess of wisdom, Athena, transformed into Mentor to guide, protect, and impart wisdom and courage onto Odysseus's son (Ragins & Kram, 2007). Interestingly, the mentorship persona, of Mentor, epitomized attributes of both male and female (Ragins & Kram, 2007). Ragins and Kram (2007) provide a compelling quote from *The Roots and Meaning of Mentoring*, "This archetype offers provocative insights into the meaning of mentoring as a relationship that transcends time, gender, and culture" (p. 4).

Daniel Levinson (1978) and Kathy Kram (1983) are pioneers for exploring the impact of mentoring on personal development. Kathy Kram unveiled a theoretical foundation for understanding the development of relationships at work in her 1985 book *Mentoring at Work*. After the release of her study, the concept of mentoring exploded with ongoing research and the practice of mentoring.

Since the early developments and research, global changes are redirecting the perspectives on what mentoring looks like currently and in the future.

Seismic changes in technology, globalization, organizational structures, career paths, and diversity require a critical analysis and reassessment of the field. In addition to these massive structural changes, new hybrid forms of mentoring were being offered by

organizations without guidance or connection to empirical research. (Ragins & Kram, 2007, p. 4)

So, what are the emerging perspectives? Ragins and Kram (2007) enlighten readers by highlighting the importance of understanding that mentoring relationships exist on a continuum to incorporate the affective, cognitive, and behavioral aspects of the relationship between the mentor and mentee. Researchers are starting to understand the importance and significance of learning in mentor relationships, they strive to understand individual attributes, appreciate emotional intelligence, and an increase in diversity awareness and global perspectives (Ragins & Kram, 2007).

As a pioneer in modernizing mentoring techniques and research, Kathy Kram (1983) provides a conceptual model depicting the phases of mentoring relationships which continue to lay the foundation for current mentoring literature (Johnson, 2016; Zachary, 2005; Zachary, 2012). Dr. Kram firmly believes mentoring relationships significantly amplifies early adulthood development, including experienced midcareer individuals. In addition, mentoring relationships have the ability to foster both professional and psychological development throughout all career phases (Kram, 1983).

Phases of Mentoring Relationships. According to Dr. Kram's research, four phases present themselves in a mentoring relationship (a) initiation; (b) cultivation; (c) separation; and (d) redefinition (1983). The initiation phase occurs in the first six months to a year. During this time, a relationship begins and "...the primary relational task is engaging in enough interaction such that both parties can adequately assess the potential match" (Johnson, 2016, p. 113). The cultivation phase is critical in fostering a strong relationship. In this phase, the interpersonal bond strengthens with trust and mutual respect (Johnson, 2016). The mentor fosters career and

psychological development as the mentee navigates through professional development, gaining self-awareness, and personal growth both in and outside the place of employment (Searby, 2009; & Zachary, 2012).

The third phase, separation, transitions from period of mentee dependence to autonomy (Kram, 1983). Generally, at this point, the mentee gained personal and professional confidence during the cultivation phase and is ready to separate in both a structural and psychological sense (Johnson, 2016). The separation phase may elicit an array of emotions from both the mentor and the mentee. The mentor may experience uncertainty, loss, or even insecurity during the mentee's transition to independence. However, this is a time for mindful mentors to celebrate and continue to collegially support the mentee (Johnson, 2016).

The final and fourth phase, redefinition, is when the mentoring relationship ends or phases into a peer or friendship connection phase (Kram, 1983). Johnson (2016) confirms the observations by describing a collegial relationship that includes a sense of gratitude, acknowledgement and pride in each other's accomplishments, and an enduring appreciation for the friendship and support.

Initial theories and definitions expressed that a mentoring relationship traditionally developed when a respected senior professor supports and guides novice faculty members in personal and professional development (Gaskin et al., 2003). The initial theories presumed the relationship as mentor driven; however, current literature is highlighting the importance of allowing the mentee to take a learner-centered approach (Fischler & Zachary, 2009). "Good mentoring depends on effective learning. Effective learning depends on the readiness, willingness, and openness of mentoring partners" (Fischler & Zachary, 2009, p. 6).

In order for learning to take place, mentors need to understand the four levels of learning (a) unconsciously incompetent; (b) consciously incompetent, (c) consciously competent, and (d) unconsciously competent (Zachary, 2012). Unconsciously incompetent assumes that the individual's confidence exceeds their ability, and the learner is unaware of what they do not know (Zachary, 2012). At this point, the mentor provides support in the learning process and facilitates the discovery of the unknown (Zachary, 2012). The first level of learning is common in the initiation phase or with a novice faculty member.

Consciously incompetent refers to an awareness of the unknown and learner confidence typically drops (Zachary, 2012). Encouragement from the mentor is appropriate to foster a cohesive learning environment and reframe mistakes as a learning opportunity. Consciously competent is an area of increased confidence and deeper learning. The mentee is familiar with process and information but seeks a richer understanding. During this phase is an optimal time for the mentor to provide practice opportunities and offer constructive feedback for growth (Zachary, 2012).

The final phase, unconsciously competent, is a breakthrough for the mentor-mentee relationship where the mentee demonstrates confidence. The mentee is proficient with their job requirements and daily functions of the organization. At this point, the mentoring relationship may transition from the separation to the redefinition phase. The mentee and mentor benefit from reflection and continuous support for improvement (Zachary, 2012).

In a perfect mentoring collaboration, the phases of mentoring and learning seamlessly coincide. Realistically, prior experiences and assumptions from both parties, may overshadow the benefits of the mentoring journey (Searby, 2009). "An assumption is a belief one possesses that is thought to be true and from which a conclusion can be drawn" (Searby, 2009, p. 10).

According to Searby (2009), assumptions are often influential predictors of the success or failure of the mentoring relationship and process. Assumptions may derive from past experiences, fears, mentoring myths, interpretations of culture and diversity, and differences or similarities in core values (Searby, 2009).

Cultural and Emotional Intelligence. An excellent analogy to overcome assumptions and prior experiences that may hinder the development of a relationship is from Blake-Beard (2009). She articulates that mentoring relationships provide an avenue to cross borders and facilitate access to alternative perspective and experiences. Bridging mentoring promotes inclusion and enables individuals in the mentoring relationship to feel comfortable being themselves and authentically express their own thoughts and experiences (Fain & Zachary, 2020).

A significant aspect of using mentoring as a bridge is understanding cultural and emotional intelligence. Cultural intelligence is the ability to differentiate between peoples' cultural norms and their personal, idiosyncratic behaviors (Searby, 2009). Determining cultural influence and personal attributes may provide a critical and empathetic perspective to the mentoring process (Searby, 2009).

Emotional intelligence, a concept introduced in 1995 by Daniel Goleman, "is the ability to recognize and understand our own emotions (self-awareness) and the emotions of others (social awareness) and then to use this ability to guide our behavior (self-management) and manage our relationships (relationship management)" (Zachary, 2012, p. 5). To place the definition of emotional intelligence in perspective, the mentee and mentor should practice self-awareness by appropriately managing emotions, intuitively read the other's emotions, and considerately manage the mentoring relationship.

Zachary (2012) reassures readers that with practice, people consistently increase their awareness and implementation of emotional intelligence. Interestingly, Johnson (2016) states recent research shows individuals engaging in a relationship with high emotional intelligence is a predictor for mentoring success when compared to individuals with intellectual intelligence. In addition to emotional intelligence awareness, Holt et al. (2016) also found that high performing employees tend to see higher levels of mentoring in comparison to low performing employees.

The question remains, why mentor? Research shows mentoring increases job satisfaction, opens lines for promotional opportunities and pay, increased self-esteem, and a sense of confidence (Bynum, 2015; & Holt et al., 2016). Holt and contributors (2016) also note the organization and structure of mentoring relationships heightens the mentee's learning, which shows to lessen the chances of the mentee leaving the organization on their own, increasing faculty retention rates.

In an academic setting, mentoring refers to a "...reciprocal and collaborative learning relationship between two (or more) individuals who share mutual responsibility and accountability for helping a mentee work toward achievement..." (Zachary, 2005, p. 3). Mentorship is recognized as an essential strategy to assist the socialization of faculty to the ongoing expectations of higher education (Waddell et al., 2016).

Further, issues relating to academic traditions, resources, institutional values, and career advice are some of the significant topics stemming from mentoring relationships. A person who teaches, assists, acts as a role model and provides time, energy, and material support are classified as a mentor. In addition, a mentor is as a source of inspiration to novice faculty members (Anafarta & Apaydn, 2016). Overall, mentoring is a self-directed mutual learning relationship developed over time and is driven by the needs of the mentee (Zachary, 2005).

Another strategy to provide meaning to the construct of mentorship is derived from Berk et al. (2005). The authors identified five primary functions of a mentoring relationship including the focus on achievement or acquisition of knowledge; relationships consists of three components: emotional and psychological support, direct assistance with career and professional development, and role modeling; mentorship is reciprocal, where both mentor and mentee derive emotional or tangible benefits; the relationship is personal, involving direct interaction; and mentoring emphasizes the mentor's experience, influence, and achievement throughout their career (Berk et al., 2005).

For mentoring to occur, relationships benefit from interaction between a veteran faculty member and a novice faculty member with the use of either formal or informal exchanges to strive for personal and professional growth (Sheridan et al., 2015). Informal mentoring relationships occur organically among peers. However, institutions may utilize formal mentoring programs that are organizationally sanctioned with defined expectations and outcomes (Sheridan et al., 2015).

Informal and Formal Mentoring. The overarching mentoring styles occur formally or informally to cultivate meaningful relationships among colleagues and the institution of higher learning. Regardless of style, mentoring relationships are reciprocal, foster learning, develop over time, and involve repeated interactions to create a strong relationship (Bynum, 2015). Differences occurring between formal and informal mentoring are the required structure and duration, intensity, and commitment of the relationship. Formal mentoring relationships are organized by the institution of higher education between a senior faculty member and a junior, less experienced faculty member (Bynum, 2015).

Informal mentoring relationships are often less visible than formal relationships and change over time and developed based off the needs of two individuals (Siegel et al., 2011). The relationship generally does not require a long-term commitment or formalized program outcomes, such as goal setting, established by the organization (James, Rayner, & Bruno, 2015). Connections proceed at differing paces during an informal mentoring relationship and interactions may include casual conversations and situational or informational sharing (Zachary, 2013). However, formal mentoring programs are partnerships initiated by the department, school, or institution. The relationships develop organically stemming from a connection and trust in one another (Siegel et al., 2011).

Johnson (2016) and Kiel (2019) both agree on the importance of mentoring; however, they each have differing views. Johnson (2016) prefers informal or organic mentoring relationships. His research argues informal relationships create authentic and strong connections than those in formally assigned mentorships” (Johnson, 2016). To Johnson, formal relationships are not as successful because the partnership is assigned and managed by the academic institution (2016). In either case, “evidence shows that participation in faculty learning communities gets participants out of the silos of their disciplines and increases interest in teaching and in the scholarship of teaching and learning” (Phillips & Dennison, 2015 p. X).

On the other hand, Kiel (2019) favors formal mentoring relationships because they are well-defined, structured, goal oriented, and focused on behavioral expectations instead of forming a particular relationship. Keil (2019) defines the role of mentor as a colleague “...providing guidance about promotion standards and procedures, feedback about the candidate’s progress relative to those standards, and substantive advice in terms of strengthening research and scholarship so as to meet unit productivity standards” (p. 11). Interestingly, Holt et

al. (2016) found mentors in formal mentoring programs report less motivation to fully invest their time and effort or are less likely to participate because it is a requirement instead of an organic relationship.

Mentoring Concerns. Keil acknowledges formal relationships may fail and are generally related to a lack of communication, lack of experienced and knowledgeable mentors, lack of commitment to the relationship from both the mentee and mentor, competition between mentor and mentee, and the existence of an intellectually exploitive relationship (2019). Concerns also arises with the potential of power and control in the formal mentoring relationship (Christie, 2014).

A mentor and mentee will likely observe the substantial differences that exist between each other such as visible attributes like ethnicity, race, and gender; however, some differences like values, motivation, and background are not visible and could be harder to detect (Fain & Zachary, 2020). Often, subconscious assumptions occur between the mentor and mentee. Unfortunately, the subconscious assumptions are not always accurate and tend to skew the traits of all involved, decreasing the likelihood of developing a meaningful relationship (Fain & Zachary, 2020). The importance to maintain an authentic relationship is vital for development as is the understanding that each person brings their own perspectives and backgrounds that may differ from what others assume. Typically, relationships develop based on commonalities, Fain and Zachary (2020) observed that when commonalities are the focus of relationships, differences are devalued, excluded, and often omitted from conversations. Fain and Zachary (2020) provide a compelling statement that provokes self-reflective thought:

We often meet someone and think they are “different,” but people are not inherently different: our differences lie between us, not within us. We believe that leaning forward

into the differences between people, learning from those differences, and leveraging them creates stronger relationships. It is in this space that the magic of mentoring happens. (p. 479)

Christie (2014) discusses three key issues for power and control to surface. The first concern is the development of highly formalized programs by the institution. The organization elicits power by directing the outcomes of the mentoring program. Specifically, goal setting, time requirements, and most importantly, assigning mentors and mentees without understanding personality matches. Secondly, the socialization of mentees as research argues that the mentor has the power to pass on cultural values and operating practices for the mentee's success at the institution (Christie, 2014). As a novice faculty member, the mentee relies on the advice and socialization opportunities afforded to them by their mentor. The mentor may negatively influence the mentee's perception of colleagues and organizational operating practices based on their prior experiences and assumptions. Lastly, the third key topic relates to tensions between the mentor and the mentee. Essential components to a successful mentoring relationship are trust, honesty, communication, and constructive feedback (Zachary, 2012). When tensions occur, the essential components disintegrate and devalue the nature of the mentoring relationship. Tensions include lack of availability, mentee overdependence, conflicting viewpoints, and positioning mentors as experts instead of utilizing the mentee (learner) driven approach to professional development (Christie, 2014).

In order to support mentees in their professional and personal journeys, mentors must understand the basic needs of a mentee. From Phillips and Dennison's (2015) perspective, mentees need to feel a connection with their colleagues, organization, and the community. They seek advice on time management, prioritizing tasks, and the balancing act of teaching and

research. Most notable, for today's generation, is guidance with work and life balance. To facilitate a healthy and successful mentoring relationship, regardless of the nature, Zachary (2012) encourages mentors to:

1. Invest time and effort in setting the climate for learning.
2. Be sensitive to the day-to-day needs of your mentee.
3. Identify and use multiple venues for communication.
4. Set regular contact schedule but be flexible.
5. Check on the effectiveness of your communication.
6. Make sure that connection results in meaningful learning.
7. Share information and resources- but never as a substitute for personal interaction.

(p.77)

Mentoring Through Stages of Career. The next question remains of who benefits from mentoring relationships? Mentoring supports academic endeavors and more importantly provides support to the junior faculty members in comprehending and overcoming the political and social barriers within the department, school, or faculty (Anafarta & Apaydin, 2016). Faculty mentoring may have effects on junior faculty members' career satisfaction and their perceptions of career success (Anafarta & Apaydin, 2016). However, research is demonstrating a need for mentoring across the career, diversity, and cultural continuums (Johnson, 2016; Kiel, 2019; Zachary, 2012). Tenure-track (pre-tenured) faculty positive perceptions of personal and professional relationships are higher in comparison to senior faculty (Sahl, 2017). Creating a professional bond and aligning with the institutional core values supports job satisfaction and in return, potentially increases the retention and productivity of all faculty members.

Specific individuals and populations require unique foundational mentoring practices to assist in their personal and professional journey. Junior or novice faculty members new to higher education may feel overwhelmed and unprepared to navigate their new journey with the responsibilities of higher education. Some of the responsibilities include course and curriculum development, adjusting to the institution's daily operations and core values, and enhancing their capability working with diverse groups of students (Johnson, 2016).

Kiel (2019) also encourages mentoring young professionals specifically relating to the evaluation, tenure, and promotion procedures in higher education and supporting professional development. Johnson states that it is in the best interests of junior faculty members and the institution to "...create a culture of mentoring for new colleagues and ensure that each new professor has the opportunity for a primary mentorship with an established faculty colleague, as well as support in developing a wider mentoring constellation (p. 162).

Mid-career mentoring is just as important as new faculty member. At this point in their career, they typically achieved tenure and or promotion. Although these are exciting times, it can sometimes provoke a career crisis (Kiel, 2019). Research shows by the time a faculty member reaches the associate professor level; they have the least amount of job satisfaction in their career (Kiel, 2019). Mentoring may facilitate an easier transition into their new role as they may experience additional demands, workload adjustments, and possibly suffering emotional costs from the grueling tenure and promotion process (Kiel, 2019).

Gender and Sexual Identity. Zachary (2012) and Johnson (2016) investigated mentoring across gender and sexual identity. Social and professional openness about sexual identity in the workplace is more widely accepted, but institutions of higher education need to support and foster role clarity, self-efficacy, and social acceptance of all faculty (Sahl, 2017;

Zachary, 2012). However, it is imperative to “remain sensitive to issues of biological sex, gender, socialization, and sexual orientation, but avoid assuming that these factors alone will predict salient mentoring needs, relational styles, or professional concerns” (Johnson, 2016, p. 175).

Women tend to face barriers especially when securing a mentorship and tend to prefer a mentor of the same sex (Johnson, 2016). Kram (1985) reported that if a conflict between work and life occurred, the more a female gravitates towards a female mentor. A 2012 study completed by Hyers and colleagues reported that males in various academic ranks have more mentoring exchanges with senior academic personnel than women. Men had 13 more mentoring interactions with notable colleagues than did female faculty” (as cited in Johnson, 2016). In general, research continues to support literature findings that women are less satisfied in their jobs in comparison to men (Sahl, 2017).

Cross-Cultural Mentoring. Cross-cultural mentoring is crucial as racial and ethnic minority groups face challenges early in their career. According to Johnson (2016), nationwide, minority faculty hold only five percent to eight percent of jobs across higher education. With the low percentage of minority faculty, research suggests that underrepresented groups experience non-collegial work environments (Mack et al., 2013). Essential approaches for cross-race mentorship include first and foremost establishing trust, recognizing personal stereotypes, valuing individual differences, and exhibiting diversity-promoting attitudes and behaviors to influence the community’s acceptance of cultural differences (Johnson, 2016).

Accountability. In addition to attributes, Berk et al. (2005) set forth concrete responsibilities for the mentee to hold the mentor accountable by (a) committing to mentoring; (b) providing resources, experts, and source materials in the field; (c) offering guidance and

direction regarding professional issues; (d) encouraging mentee's ideas and work; (e) providing constructive and useful critiques of the mentee's work; (f) challenging the mentee to expand his or her abilities; (g) providing timely, clear, and comprehensive feedback to mentee's questions; (h) respecting mentee's uniqueness and their contributions; (i) appropriately acknowledging contributions of mentee; (j) and sharing in the success and benefits of the mentee's accomplishments.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study, the Range of Affect Theory, aligns with Paul E. Spector's theory of job satisfaction (Hora et al., 2018). Edwin Locke's 1976 Range of Affect Theory is one of the most notable explanatory systems to understand job satisfaction. In Locke's highly influential work, he defined job satisfaction as "...a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1300).

Jehanzeb and Mohanty (2018) reference the Range of Affect Theory in their research on the impact of employee development on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Several studies highlight the Range of Affect Theory as a contributor to job satisfaction regarding productivity, increased motivation, decreased absenteeism, decreased accidents, and an increase in mental and physical health (Tarigan & Ariani, 2015; Yucel & Bektas, 2012).

The theory's foundation supports the belief that the discrepancy between one's ideal job and the job they currently hold determines satisfaction (Singh & Sinha, 2013). The theory states that satisfaction/dissatisfaction, when expectations are/are not met, depends on how much the individual values a given aspect of work (Singh & Sinha, 2013). When a person values a particular facet of a job, their satisfaction is "...impacted both positively (when expectations are

met) and negatively (when expectations are not met), compared to one who doesn't value that facet" (Singh & Sinha, 2013, p. 1).

Spector developed the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) in 1985 to fill an instrument gap for assessing job satisfaction for human services staff. The design of the instrument was predicated on the theory that job satisfaction symbolizes an affective or attitudinal response to employment (Spector, 1985). Spector continues to elaborate on the idea of job satisfaction by alluding that job aspects are derived from "...a cognitive process of comparing the existing job aspect with an individual's frame of reference" (p. 695). In turn, he theorizes that employees would stay with a satisfying job and quit a dissatisfying job.

The JSS measures four significant categories that Spector identified as critical characteristics of job satisfaction. The categories include organizational commitment (The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer), job characteristics (Work assignments are not fully explained), leader behavior (My supervisor shows too little interest in the feeling of subordinates), employee withdrawal (I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated), and personal characteristics (I feel a sense of pride in doing my job). Spector's intentions to increase the generalizability of assessing job satisfaction, encouraged the incorporation of the JSS as an instrumentation device to gather data associated with job satisfaction of faculty members at an institution of higher education.

Spector's (1985) theory of job satisfaction aligns with the intentions of this study. He believes that employees who are happy and satisfied remain employed in their current organization. Employees who are unhappy and dissatisfied tend to remove themselves from the environment and find alternative employment. Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey is a widely used assessment instrument. The popularity of the instrument increases the generalizability of the

outcomes making it an appropriate assessment tool for this research study. The JSS will aid in answering the three research questions associated with mentorship's influence on job satisfaction, faculty's perception of the importance of mentoring, and mentoring relationships on job satisfaction according to faculty status.

Research Questions

Primary RQ:

1. What is the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction for faculty members in a Midwest institution of higher education?

Secondary RQs:

1. What is the importance of mentoring relationships for faculty at a Midwest institution of higher education?
2. How does the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction become impacted by demographic variables?

Conclusions

Research supports mentoring and job satisfaction as contributors to the overall retention of faculty members in higher education. Each variable incorporates predictor trends such as pay, promotion, supervision, and environment for job satisfaction. Mentoring requires a mutual relationship between two benefiting individuals. Together, they promote collaboration, creativity, and growth mindsets. Faculty status, gender, and generational qualities were the focus of job satisfaction. Mentoring also supports academic endeavors, but may also include limitations associated with gender, employment status, and tenure of both parties.

In the following chapter, the study reviews the research questions and thoroughly describes the research design. The research design included a comprehensive quantitative

component with the use of a questionnaire and a focus group interview gaining a deeper understanding of the correlation, if any, between mentorship and job satisfaction at a Midwest institution of higher education. However, the researcher did not complete a thorough qualitative analysis, they used direct quotes to support or contradict the outcomes of the questionnaire.

CHAPTER 3. METHODS

Introduction

With the everchanging demographics of faculty and students at institutions of higher education, there is a need to evaluate the relationship between mentoring and job satisfaction. The study evaluated faculty members at a Midwest institution of higher education with the use of an online questionnaire via Qualtrics software and a focus group by providing an interpretation to confirm or deny that their personal experiences coincide with the provided quantitative data analysis outcomes. The questionnaire assessed faculty's perception of mentoring and job satisfaction at their current place of employment and the discussion allowed the participants to express their experiences instead of a pre-scripted discussion.

Research Questions

Primary RQ:

1. What is the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction for faculty members in a Midwest institution of higher education?

Secondary RQs:

1. What is the importance of mentoring relationships for faculty at a Midwest institution of higher education?
2. How do mentoring relationships affect faculty's job satisfaction?

Research Design

Under the paradigm of post-positivism, the researcher conducted a correlational study to investigate the relationship between mentoring and job satisfaction among faculty at a higher education institution. The research paradigm of post-positivism explores a scientific approach (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Researchers who utilize the post-positivist paradigm "...believe in

multiple perspectives from participants rather than a single reality” (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 23). Correlational research is occasionally referred to as associational research. The purpose of correlational research is to study, without influence or manipulation, the strength of a relationship among two or more variables (Fraenkel et al., 2012). A correlational study describes the level or relation between variables; however, it does not establish cause and effect (Fraenkel et al., 2012).

In this study, the researcher supplemented the quantitative data analysis with a focus group discussion to support or contrast the correlational results between mentorship and job satisfaction on the questionnaire. The researcher did not compile an in-depth analysis and did not code for themes. The focus group's purpose was to provide accurate participant quotes to gauge the correlation between mentorship and job satisfaction among higher education faculty. The quantitative data, for this study, was derived from an electronic questionnaire and gathered data related to the correlation between faculty mentoring relationships and job satisfaction at a Midwest institution of higher education.

Correlational studies may result in a positive or negative relationship. A positive correlation exists when participants score above (or below) the average on one mode of a variable measurement score and similarly on the other variable's measurement tool (Siegle, 2015). In contrast, a negative relationship exists when participants score above average on one measure and below average on the other or vice versa (Siegle, 2015).

In addition to direction, a correlational study can differ in strength of the relationship using a correlation coefficient between 0 and ± 1.00 (Fraenkel et al., 2012). The symbol r represents the correlation coefficient for a sample. “The stronger the correlation-the closer the value of r (correlation coefficient) comes to ± 1.00 ...” (Siegle, 2015, para. 4). A score of zero

indicates no relationship between the two variables and a 1.00 and -1.00 denotes a perfect relationship (Siegle, 2015). Fraenkel and contributors suggest a correlation of 0.65 and higher to have theoretical or practical value for accurate predictions (2012). The variables are considered unrelated, uncorrelated, or independent when the variables demonstrate no relationship.

Setting

For this study, the researcher surveyed adjunct, special appointment, tenure-track, and tenured faculty members at a Midwest institution of higher education. The institution was recognized as one of the top public regional colleges in the Midwest. Over the past ten years, the institution had a steady increase in enrollment to approximately 1676 students (40% male and 60% female). Of the 1676 students, 86% identify as White/non-Hispanic, 2.3% as Black or African American, 0.7% as American Indian or Alaskan Native, 4.1% as Hispanic/Latino, 0.4% Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, 2.9% two or more races, 1.4% identify as a non-resident alien, and 0.8% identify as international students.

In 2020, the average student entering a fall semester had an American College Testing (ACT) composite score of 20.2 and a high school grade point average of 3.25 on a 4-point scale. The overall retention rate in 2019, was a staggering 72%.

The Midwest institution of higher education had 12 departments and offered more than 80 undergraduate programs in art, business, communication arts, computer systems and software engineering, education, kinesiology and human performance, language and literature, mathematics, music, science, social science, and technology education. The institution also offered a fully online Master of Education (M.Ed.) and Master of Arts in Teaching (M.A.T.) degree programs.

During the 2020 academic year, the institution's administration consisted of a president, vice president for academic affairs, an assistant vice president for academic affairs, a vice president for student affairs, a vice president for business affairs, and 12 department chairs. The university employed 144 faculty members, including 80 females and 64 males. Of the 144 faculty members, 65 were instructors, 40 were assistant professors, 23 were associate professors, and 16 were professors. Fifteen faculty members were supervisors of departments or programs. Forty-four faculty were tenured, 25 were tenure-track, 13 have a special appointment contract, and 62 were adjunct faculty members.

Founded in 1890 as a "normal school" (or teachers' college), the fully accredited campus by the Higher Learning Commission, remained true to the tradition of preparing reputable K-12 educators in the Midwest region. The community supporting the institution had a population of approximately 6,500 people in 2020. The Midwest institution of higher education was one of 11 institutions within the state's university system.

As the designated technology school for the university system, the campus enhanced learning experiences by providing full-time students with their own laptop, advanced technology, high-speed wireless networking, and classrooms equipped with state-of-the-art educational technology. The institution also boasted a student-faculty ratio of 13:1 providing students with ideal opportunities to engage with faculty.

During the 2019-2020 academic year, the institution collected data on faculty general concerns via a satisfaction survey distributed by email. The most notable concerns were funding for professional development, the culture/climate of the institution, equal and equitable resources, and faculty compensation. All the mentioned concerns were currently in deliberation with the institution's faculty governance and executive cabinet as well as the university system's

Council on College Faculties and the State Board of Higher Education. Each of these topics together or individually, may contribute to job satisfaction rates at the participating Midwest institution of higher education.

Participants

Eligible participants who completed the Qualtrics questionnaire were all faculty members with no minimum or maximum requirement for years of employment, and a contractual status of adjunct, special appointment, tenure-track, or tenured faculty members at a Midwest institution of higher education. Eligible participants for the focus group included any faculty member who completed the Qualtrics questionnaire and provided their contact information indicating an interest to participate.

A typical faculty contract for a full-time, tenure-track or tenured employee, was for a 9-month duration and responsibilities include 10% scholarship, 10% service and 80% teaching. Adjunct and special appointment contractual agreements were negotiated between the employee and the Vice President for Academic Affairs. The primary ethnicity of faculty are Caucasian, 56% female, and an average salary of approximately \$55,000. The eligible participants were faculty within the 12 departments of the participating Midwest institution of higher education.

Sampling

The researcher incorporated a non-random convenience sampling strategy to include all adjunct, special appointment, tenure-track, and tenured faculty members. Non-random convenience sampling occurs when not every member of the population has an equal chance of participating in the study (Fraenkel et al., 2012). The entire population included all faculty members (adjunct, special appointment, tenure-track, and tenured) regardless of geographical location. However, for the purpose of this study, the researcher chose to sample participants from

one institution and employed by the contributing Midwest institution of higher education due to the location of the researcher. Therefore, a non-random convenience sampling approach was appropriate for the study.

The email invitation to participate in the quantitative questionnaire was sent to the all-faculty email listserv to facilitate contact with all 144 contracted faculty members. The final sample size was 38 indicating a 26% return rate. Participants who chose to complete the questionnaire were invited to submit their contact information at the conclusion of the Qualtrics questionnaire. Providing their contact information demonstrated interest and consent to contribute to the study and participate in the focus group. Ultimately, five faculty members participated in the focus group discussion.

Instrumentation

The researcher developed the Demographic Questionnaire (see Appendix C) in 2019. The categories included gender, age, ethnicity, relationship status, annual base salary, years at institution, tenure status, supervisory status, faculty rank status, years at current faculty rank status, affiliated department, and questions regarding the perception of mentoring relationships according to the participants. The perception of mentoring questions were presented under the *Assessing Mentoring Relationships* section of the demographic survey. The perception of mentoring occurring throughout a faculty member's career, regardless of the length of employment, is of interest to this study. Mentoring exists, regardless of years of employment, faculty status, and supervisory roles (Kupersmidt et al., 2019). The intentional inclusion of variables aided the researcher in identifying the presence or need of mentorship and the influence on job satisfaction across the employment continuum and not solely focusing on novice faculty

members. In addition, the selection of the demographic variables included in this study corresponded with methods used in current literature.

The Mentorship Effectiveness Scale (MES) was developed by Berk et al. (2005) for the Johns Hopkins University School of Nursing. The MES was reformatted and updated in 2005 and 2009. For the purpose of this study, the most recent 2009 version was utilized in the questionnaire. Dr. Ronald Alan Berk granted the researcher permission without any fee to use the mentorship scale intact or modified for the target population, as long as the copyright line remains affixed at the bottom and the article is referenced (personal communication, April 25, 2020).

The MES (see Appendix C) was a standardized tool for rating the mentorship experience and effectiveness of a mentor, focusing on 12 behavioral aspects of a mentor. Accessibility, professional integrity, content knowledge, feedback, support, motivation for improvement, providing guidance and direction, and acknowledgement of contributions were among the mentor's behaviors assessed with the MES.

According to Berk and contributors (2005):

The most common indices of item analysis, validity, and reliability computed from sample data cannot be estimated for most scales of mentors' effectiveness. Although a common set of criteria and scale items are administered using standardized procedures, typically each mentor–mentee relationship is unique. (p. 68)

Berk et al. (2005) discussed their inability to obtain statistical samples of mentor ratings, validity coefficients and standard indices of internal consistency reliability, such as coefficient alpha, and group-based psychometric statistics. The measurement was based on an educational or professional experience, due to the intended nature, there was no need to compute or calculate

validity and reliability of the instrument. The authors allude to the notion that each dyad's relationship was unique and the responses to the MES were perception-based (Berk et al., 2005).

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (see Appendix C) developed in 1985 by Paul E. Spector was a 36 item Likert scale questionnaire, nine subset scale which assessed employee attitudes about their job and aspects of their job. Four questions assessed each subset, and a total score was computed from all items. "Items are written in both directions, so about half must be reverse scored. The nine [subsets] are Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Fringe Benefits, Contingent Rewards (performance-based rewards), Operating Procedures (required rules and procedures), Coworkers, Nature of Work, and Communication" (Spector, 2019, para. 1). Sample questions included: I like the people I work with; I have too much to do at work; and those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.

Paul E. Spector granted the researcher permission to use the JSS for noncommercial purposes. Spector also granted permission to reproduce the scale as long as the copyright notice is visible. A condition for use was that the researcher share the results with Spector. He requested the means per subset and total score, sample size, brief description of sample (excluding identifying information), name of country where collected, standard deviations per subset and total score (optional), and coefficient alpha per subset and total score (optional) (Spector, 2020).

According to Spector, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) align with industrial organizations and found lower satisfaction and correlations with employees in human service when compared to the norms of both instruments (1985). Therefore, Spector designed the Job Satisfaction Survey to fulfill the needs of human service organizations.

Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey was a reputable instrument that was repeatedly investigated for reliability and validity. JSS reported an internal consistency score of 0.60 for coworker to 0.91 for the total scale for an average of 0.70 for internal consistency (Spector, 1985). Studies support validity with a correlation of 0.61 for coworkers to 0.80 for supervision.

The JSS is a 36-item Likert-scale instrument and incorporated nine-subsets measuring employee job satisfaction. The identification of the nine-subsets measures occurred from an extensive literature review, conducted by Spector, determining the underlying dimensions of satisfaction. The nine dimensions of satisfaction include "...satisfaction with pay, promotional opportunities, fringe benefits, contingent rewards (appreciation and recognition, supervision, co-workers, nature of work itself, communication, and work conditions" (Spector, 1985, p. 699).

Spector decided to use a six-point rating scale ranging from disagree very much to agree very much. The researcher adapted the scale range from the original wording to disagree strongly, disagree moderately, disagree slightly, agree slightly, agree moderately, agree strongly in order to keep responses consistent between the MES and the JSS.

The 36-items were formulated as evaluative statements where half were written in a negative direction and half worded in a positive direction. Each question scored from a one to a six depending on the answer selected from the participant (Spector, 2020). High scores represented job satisfaction; however, scoring was reversed for negatively worded statements (Spector, 2020). For example, a positive statement was *I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do*. If the participant rated this statement as a six (agree very much), the researcher scored the question as a six. If the participant ranked a negative statement, *I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive*, as a six (agree very much), the researcher reversed the scoring to a one.

Below are internal consistency reliabilities (coefficient alpha), based on a sample of 2,870 (Spector, 2019).

Table 1

Internal Consistency Reliabilities

| Scale | Alpha | Description |
|----------------------|-------|--|
| Pay | .75 | Pay and remuneration |
| Promotion | .73 | Promotion opportunities |
| Supervision | .82 | Immediate supervisor |
| Fringe Benefits | .73 | Monetary and nonmonetary fringe benefits |
| Contingent Rewards | .76 | Appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work |
| Operating Procedures | .62 | Operating policies and procedures |
| Coworkers | .60 | People you work with |
| Nature of Work | .78 | Job tasks themselves |
| Communication | .71 | Communication within the organization |
| Total | .91 | Total of all facets |

Paul Spector provided a document, *Interpreting Satisfaction Scores with the Job Satisfaction Survey*[®], on his website (see Appendix F) to aid the researcher's analyses of job satisfaction. Although job satisfaction is subjective and difficult to assess, Spector provided guidance based on normative values from various professional organizations, including higher education (see Appendix G). The following information from Spector (2020) provided

interpretation values that assessed job *satisfaction* or *dissatisfaction* among the participants' questionnaire responses from the Midwest institution of higher education:

Mean scores between 3 and 4 are ambivalence. Translated into the summed scores, for the 4-item subscales with a range from 4 to 24, scores of 4 to 12 are dissatisfied, 16 to 24 are satisfied, and between 12 and 16 are ambivalent. For the 36-item total where possible scores range from 36 to 216, the ranges are 36 to 108 for dissatisfaction, 144 to 216 for satisfaction, and between 108 and 144 for ambivalent. (para. 3)

The researcher merged the demographic survey, the MES, the JSS, and the invitation to participate in the focus group into one questionnaire, 66 items, and used the Qualtrics online survey platform. The researcher piloted the questionnaire with nine individuals who were faculty outside of the participating Midwest institution of higher education. The email to the pilot group included the request to participate and questions for them to consider when completing the questionnaire (see Appendix E). The researcher requested pilot participants to answer the following feedback questions:

1. Did the instructions make sense regarding how to complete the questionnaire?
2. How long did it take you to complete the survey?
3. Did it flow well from one component to another?
4. What did you use to complete the questionnaire: a PC, Mac, cell phone or other mobile device?
5. Was the request at the end to volunteer for the focus group clear and inviting (in other words, how should it be worded so some will volunteer?)?
6. Were there any questions that were unclear (you didn't know how to respond based on what was asked)?

7. Were there any questions that used confusing terminology (e.g., full-time, part-time, adjunct, workshop vs. course) that need further explanation?
8. What specific components, phrasing, or questions create frustration or confusion to the point someone will not finish to completion?
9. What other comments or suggestions can you offer? (e.g., were there typos or grammatical errors?)

The researcher considered the feedback responses and made adjustments to clarify directions, add definitions, add answer options such as “not applicable” and “other” with the option to add text. The pilot group confirmed the estimated completion time of 15 minutes as they all completed the questionnaire in approximately 15 minutes.

The instrumentation for the collection of focus group questions was developed after the analysis of the Qualtrics questionnaire. The researcher was interested in the meaning the participants brought to the conversation about the phenomenon instead of the researcher providing the meaning (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The reasoning followed Kram’s (1983) explanation regarding the exploratory nature of the research in assessing mentoring’s impact on job satisfaction suggesting the use of adaptable data collection methods that encouraged discussions of unpredicted aspects of the phenomenon to develop.

Data Collection

A quantitative questionnaire and a supplemental focus group discussion were used to gain insight into mentorship’s influence on job satisfaction for faculty members at a Midwest institution of higher education. Eligible faculty members received an email request for participation through their official email address as listed in the Employee Directory and faculty listserv. The email invitation contained the informed consent, research details, and the link to

enter the quantitative portion of the study, via a Qualtrics survey, with a questionnaire including 18 demographic questions developed by the researcher, 12 questions within the Mentorship Effectiveness Scale, and 36 questions associated with the Job Satisfaction Survey for a total of 66 questions. The expected time commitment was set at approximately 15 minutes. However, the average time of completion for the 40 participants was approximately 13 minutes.

The researcher sent one email invitation that provided one Qualtrics URL link for participants to complete the demographic survey, Job Satisfaction Survey, and Mentorship Effectiveness Scale. If the faculty member chose to participate, they clicked on the Qualtrics URL link. The first screen reiterated the informed consent and the option to discontinue participation at any time. The first screen also included a button, *I understand and agree to participate*. Data were not collected until the participant selected the *I understand and agree to participate* button, which initiated the questionnaire on the second screen.

The first invitation to participate in the study was sent seven days before the questionnaire closing date. The instrument remained open for seven days from the initial invitation email. Reminder emails were sent three days after the initial invitation, one day before, and on the due date to encourage faculty participation.

The focus group segment of the study consisted of a five-member focus group, which was 12% of the total participants. Focus groups are not open to the public to ensure homogenous participants with critical characteristics associated with the study population (Krueger & Casey, 2015). Previously, 10-12 participants were recommended for a focus group; however, researchers recently demonstrated that smaller focus groups are favorable to facilitate the discussion and observe the group dynamics (Krueger & Casey, 2015). Krueger and Casey (2015) stated, “small focus groups, mini-focus groups, with four to six participants are becoming

increasingly popular because the smaller groups are easier to recruit and host and are more comfortable for participants” (p. 67). For this study, the researcher strove for the recommended four to six participants. In turn, the researcher was able to secure the five participants who volunteered and contributed to the discussion.

Faculty members eligible to become participants of the focus group were any faculty member from the participating Midwest institution of higher education that completed the Qualtrics questionnaire. After the data analysis, the researcher composed five questions relating to the correlational results assessing mentorship’s influence on faculty job satisfaction. The focus group discussion lasted approximately one hour. The researcher recorded the session using a virtual meeting platform. In addition to electronically signing the informed consent, the researcher verbally asked for consent to record the discussion.

Data Analysis

The quantitative, correlational study was designed to analyze the relationship between perceived mentorship and job satisfaction. Using SPSS statistical software, the Pearson product-moment correlation calculated a correlation coefficient r to evaluate if a positive or negative correlation existed between the two variables (i.e., mentorship and job satisfaction). The researcher used a Pearson product-moment correlation test and compared job satisfaction levels among demographic variables (e.g., gender, ethnicity, age).

Content analysis was used to analyze qualitative data resulting from the focus group session. The focus group discussion concentrated on the quotes culminating from the hour-long interview to support or contradict the quantitative data analysis. The researcher transcribed the recording into text data and used participants’ direct quotes to supplement the quantitative data analysis (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Research Questions and System Alignment

Table 2 provides a description of the alignment between the study Research Question(s) and the methods used in this study to ensure that all variables of study have been accounted for adequately.

Table 2

Research Question(s) Alignment

| Research Question | Variables | Design | Instrument | Validity & Reliability | Technique (e.g., interview) | Source |
|--|-------------------------------------|---------------|-----------------------------------|---|-----------------------------|--|
| Primary RQ: What is the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction for faculty members in a Midwest institution of higher education? | Job Satisfaction (score from 0-216) | Correlational | Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) | Reliability= 0.86 Cronbach's Alpha Method Validity= 0.61-0.80 Spearman Correlation Coefficient | Questionnaire | Faculty at a Midwest Institution of Higher Education |
| | Mentorship | | Mentorship Effectiveness Scale | NA | Questionnaire | Faculty at a Midwest Institution of Higher Education |
| | Mentoring Relationships | | Focus Group | NA | Interview | Faculty at a Midwest Institution of Higher Education |
| Secondary RQ1: What is the importance of mentoring relationships for faculty at a Midwest institution of higher education? | Faculty of higher education | Correlational | Assessing Mentoring Relationships | NA | Questionnaire | Faculty at a Midwest Institution of Higher Education |
| | Mentoring relationships | | Mentorship Effectiveness Scale | NA | Questionnaire | Faculty at a Midwest Institution of Higher Education |
| Secondary RQ2: How does the correlation between mentoring and job | Job Satisfaction | | Job Satisfaction Survey | Cronbach's Alpha Method | Questionnaire | |

| Research Question | Variables | Design | Instrument | Validity & Reliability | Technique (e.g., interview) | Source |
|--|----------------|--------|--------------------|---|-----------------------------|--------|
| satisfaction become impacted by demographic variables? | | | | Validity= 0.61-0.80 Spearman Correlation Coefficient | | |
| | Faculty Status | | Demographic Survey | NA | Questionnaire | |

Procedures

As a faculty member at an institution of higher education, the researcher had access to Qualtrics survey software. The software allowed the author to construct and disseminate the surveys by emailing a URL link to each eligible faculty member as an invitation to participate in the study. An initial email was sent seven days before the due date requesting participation from faculty, with no minimum or maximum years of service, at the Midwest institution of higher education with an adjunct, special appointment, tenure-track, or tenured status. Subsequent reminder emails occurred at three days, one day before, and the day of the due date. The questionnaire remained active for seven days from the submission of the initial invitation until the due date. A note thanking the faculty member was automatically generated when the participant completed the questionnaire. If the participant opted out of the study, a thank you note was automatically generated thanking them for their consideration.

Data were collected and housed via the secure Qualtrics survey software. The questionnaire collected quantitative data assessing demographic information and respondents' answers to the Mentorship Effectiveness Scale and the Job Satisfaction Survey. Upon completion, the researcher downloaded the data from Qualtrics and uploaded the results onto an SPSS database for analysis. The researcher evaluated data and determined the correlational coefficient of faculty mentorship and job satisfaction in higher education.

The researcher created multiple variables for analysis using SPSS. Associated variables include the MES Score which compiled the responses from the 12-items from the Mentorship Effectiveness Scale and the JSS Score included a sum of the 36-items from the Job Satisfaction Survey. In addition, the researcher developed a variable for each of the 9 subsets of the Job Satisfaction Survey referred to as the JSS Reliability Score.

The JSS Reliability Score was developed because upon analysis, three out of nine subsets of the JSS did not correlate with the overall construct suggesting a threat to the internal validity or the instrument was not robust. The JSS Reliability score removed the *promotion, supervision, and nature of work subsets*. The removal of the three subsets did not change the correlation findings between mentoring and job satisfaction. Therefore, the researcher only used the JSS Score to assess the correlation with the MES Score.

The focus group discussion was scheduled for one hour using a virtual conference setting. Appendix F includes the formal interview protocol. The researcher did not conduct a formal content analysis but summarized main group ideas and used quotes to support or contradict the quantitative analysis results. The discussion consisted of five open-ended questions, based off the analysis of the questionnaire, and the discussion was recorded as stated in the informed consent.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations and protection of the research participants were imperative and essential to the researcher. No known risks were associated with participation in either the questionnaire or the focus group portions of the study. Deception was not an objective of this study, and all participants received written correspondence with a description of the study in

detail guaranteeing transparency. The faculty were aware of the benefits and importance of mentorship on job satisfaction and the overall culture of the institution.

Careful consideration during the development of this study ensured that the participants were protected from harm, cognitive, or physical. The dignity and privacy of the participants were a priority and confidentiality were assured. The researcher did not have access to the identity of faculty members who participated in the Qualtrics questionnaire segment of the study to preserve confidentiality. All identifying characteristics of the focus group participants were changed to protect the identity of the group (Kaiser, 2009). Data collection documents were secured via encryption methods and housed on the researcher's password-protected computer. Only the researcher had access to computer passwords encrypted documents.

Full consent was obtained from the participants prior to the study via the Qualtrics URL provided in the email request for participation. Agreeing participants selected *I understand and agree to participate* button after they read the informed consent letter. At this point, the participant had the option to move forward with the questionnaire or exit out of the survey link. Participants were encouraged to ask questions at any point in time during the duration of the study. Involvement was entirely voluntary, and faculty had the right not to participate or leave the study at any time.

Participants were not automatically included in the focus group if they selected, *I understand and agree to participate*. As respondents concluded the questionnaire, they were asked to consider participating in the focus group discussions by providing their name and contact information. The researcher selected the five willing participants for the focus group discussion. Again, the participant was informed they can voluntarily withdraw at any point in time.

Conclusions

The correlational design of this research study provided a foundation to evaluate the basis of the research questions: Mentorship's influence on job satisfaction; faculty's opinion on the importance of mentoring relationships; and if mentoring relationships affect job satisfaction depending on faculty status at a Midwest institution of higher education. The purpose of this chapter was to provide the research questions, discuss the design, participants, instrumentation, and data analysis as it related to mentorship's influence on job satisfaction at a Midwest institution of higher education. The quantitative data were enhanced with a qualitative discussion. The approach was implemented to dive deeper into the faculty's experience with the phenomena of mentoring and its association with job satisfaction.

The following chapter will show the research tools associated with the research study and reviewed the analysis of the Qualtrics questionnaire and focus group discussion.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The study focused on the association between mentoring relationships and job satisfaction. The perception of the occurrence and type of mentoring varies among individuals (McLaughlin, 2010). However, formal and informal mentoring relationships exist to ease acclimatization to a new employment setting, prepare for faculty evaluations, and provide guidance to preserve the equilibrium between work and life responsibilities (Durbin et al., 2019). A few mentoring goals are to facilitate amicable work environments, boost community morale, and increase job satisfaction among faculty in higher education (Kiel, 2019).

The researcher implemented a post-positivist, correlational research design investigating the association between mentoring and job satisfaction among faculty members in higher education. The Range of Affect Theory served as the theoretical framework and aligned with Paul E. Spector's theory of job satisfaction (Hora et al., 2018). The Midwest institution of higher education investigated in this study had 144 eligible faculty members to participate during the 2020-21 academic school year. Eligible faculty members included those who held adjunct, special appointment, tenure-track (i.e., pre-tenure or probationary), and tenured status according to their contractual obligation with the institution. Out of the 144 faculty members, 40 (28%) completed the questionnaire, and five (12%) of those completers opted to contribute further and participated in the focus group discussion.

The small sample size was primarily due to the unforeseen global COVID-19 pandemic. Due to time constraints, the researcher released the survey in October of 2020. During this period, faculty transitioned from traditional face-to-face instruction to predominantly synchronous online learning environments to safely offer curriculum and protect all persons from

the highly contagious and catastrophic disease. Faculty were learning and implementing new content delivery strategies and were inundated with campus and system-wide emails.

The researcher did not attempt to recruit outside of the participating institution, mainly because all higher education institutions across the nation and the world experienced the devastating effects of the pandemic and also transitioned content to an online delivery mode. In addition, the researcher embraced the essence of the practitioner's degree, Doctor of Education, and sought to lead, promote, and implement change within the participating organization. The researcher leveraged the research to positively influence the institution of higher education's decision-making processes regarding mentoring and job satisfaction.

Chapter 4 provides a layout of the key findings associated with the primary and secondary research questions listed below. The research questions framed the chapter's outline and provided compelling data to support or reject the study's hypothesis.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study aims to assess the influence of informal and formal mentoring relationships on the job satisfaction of faculty members employed at a Midwest institution of higher education. The researcher evaluated the overall correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction, desegregated the demographic data by gender, ethnicity, highest degree earned, current employment status, and current faculty rank, and assessed the 9-subsets of the Job Satisfaction Survey to investigate the association between mentoring and job satisfaction.

Assessing the influence of mentoring and job satisfaction provided insight on addressing faculty retention and recruitment concerns, specifically retaining and recruiting diverse faculty members, at institutions of higher education (Philips & Dennison, 2015). Positive mentoring

relationships can enhance the community morale, instill the intended culture, and alleviate costs of hiring new faculty due to turnover rates (Philips & Dennison, 2015).

Research Questions

Primary RQ

1. What is the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction for faculty members in a Midwest institution of higher education?

Secondary RQs

1. What is the importance of mentoring relationships for faculty at a Midwest institution of higher education?
2. How does the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction become impacted by demographic variables?

The researcher considered both the null and alternative hypotheses. The null hypothesis alludes to the notion that there is no correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction.

H₀: There is no correlation between mentorship and job satisfaction.

The alternative hypothesis demonstrates there is a correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction among employed faculty members in higher education.

H_A: There is correlation between mentorship and job satisfaction.

For this research study, the predictor variable is mentoring, and the outcome variable is the job satisfaction of faculty members in higher education. The researcher implemented the Pearson product-moment correlation test to assess if a statistically significant correlation occurred between mentoring and job satisfaction. The Pearson product-moment correlation determines a monotonic relationship by measuring the strength and direction of a linear relationship between two continuous variables (Schober et al., 2018). The Pearson product-

moment correlation coefficient is denoted as r and measures the strength and direction of a linear relationship between the predictor and outcome variables. The correlation coefficient value ranges between -1 (perfect negative correlation) and 1 (perfect positive correlation). A value of 0 (zero) indicates no recordable relationship between the two variables.

The researcher tested the five assumptions associated with the Pearson product-moment correlation during the evaluation of the primary research question below to ensure the appropriate analysis was used for the study design. The first and second assumptions relate to the study design (Schober et al., 2018):

1. The two variables, mentorship and job satisfaction, measure on a continuous scale.
2. The two continuous variables are paired or have two values.

The research design successfully meets the first two assumptions, allowing for further analysis of the last three assumptions driven by the nature of data outcomes and valid results:

3. A linear relationship exists between mentorship and job satisfaction.
4. No presence of significant outliers.
5. The occurrence of bivariate normality.

Participants

According to their annual contracts, the eligible participants were all faculty members employed during the 2020-21 academic school year, holding adjunct, special appointment, instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, and professor status. Out of 144 invitations, 40 participants completed the entire questionnaire for a 28 percent return rate. Two completers' responses were measured as outliers and were removed from the study, leaving 38 participants. Of the 38 individuals, 19 (50%) were men, and 19 (50%) were women. Table 3 provided relevant data findings regarding the demographics of the participants.

Table 3*Participant Demographics - Questionnaire*

| Demographic Categories | <i>n</i> | Percent |
|--|----------|---------|
| <u>Gender</u> | | |
| Male | 19 | 50% |
| Female | 19 | 50% |
| Total | 38 | 100.0% |
| <u>Ethnicity</u> | | |
| Asian American | 1 | 2.6% |
| Hispanic or Latino | 1 | 2.6% |
| White | 34 | 89.5% |
| Other | 2 | 5.3% |
| Total | 38 | 100.0% |
| <u>Relationship Status</u> | | |
| Single | 3 | 7.9% |
| Married | 30 | 78.9% |
| Divorced | 3 | 7.9% |
| Other | 2 | 5.3% |
| Total | 38 | 100.0% |
| <u>Highest Degree</u> | | |
| Master's degree | 20 | 52.6% |
| Doctorate: Ed.D. | 3 | 7.9% |
| Doctorate: Ph.D. | 12 | 31.6% |
| Doctorate: other | 2 | 5.3% |
| Other degree | 1 | 2.6% |
| Total | 38 | 100.0% |
| <u>Employment Status</u> | | |
| Special Appointment (non-tenure track) | 8 | 21.1% |
| Tenure-Track (pre-tenure or probationary) | 13 | 34.2% |
| Tenured | 16 | 42.1% |
| Adjunct Instructor | 1 | 2.6% |
| Total | 38 | 100.0% |
| <u>Salary</u> | | |
| \$0 - \$29,999 | 1 | 2.6% |
| \$30,000 - \$39,000 | 3 | 7.9% |
| \$40,000 - \$44,999 | 3 | 7.9% |
| \$45,000 - \$49,999 | 6 | 15.8% |
| \$50,000 - \$59,999 | 15 | 39.5% |
| \$60,000 - \$69,999 | 3 | 7.9% |
| \$70,000 - \$79,999 | 5 | 13.2% |
| \$80,000 - \$89,999 | 2 | 5.3% |
| Total | 38 | 100.0% |

| Demographic Categories | <i>n</i> | Percent |
|--|----------|---------|
| <u>Faculty Rank</u> | | |
| Instructor | 4 | 10.5% |
| Assistant Professor | 18 | 47.4% |
| Associate Professor | 11 | 28.9% |
| Professor | 5 | 13.2% |
| Total | 38 | 100.0% |
| <u>Supervisory Role</u> | | |
| Department Chair | 6 | 15.8% |
| Program Director | 6 | 15.8% |
| Other | 6 | 15.8% |
| Not Applicable | 20 | 52.6% |
| Total | 38 | 100.0% |
| <u>Department</u> | | |
| Art | 1 | 2.6% |
| Business | 2 | 5.3% |
| Communication Arts | 3 | 7.9% |
| Computer Systems & Software | 3 | 7.9% |
| Engineering | | |
| Kinesiology & Human Performance | 5 | 13.2% |
| Language & Literature | 1 | 2.6% |
| Mathematics | 2 | 5.3% |
| Music | 4 | 10.5% |
| Science | 2 | 5.3% |
| Social Science | 2 | 5.3% |
| Technology Education | 2 | 5.3% |
| School of Education & Graduate Studies | 10 | 26.3% |
| Missing | 1 | 2.6% |
| Total | 38 | 100.0% |

In addition to gender, the researcher gathered data regarding ethnicity, relationship status, highest degree, employment status, salary, faculty rank, supervisory role, and affiliated department. Of the 38 participants, three (7.9%) participants selected single and divorced as their relationship status. Thirty (78.9%) responded married, and two (5.3%) chose other as a means of relationship. The faculty members at the Midwest institution of higher education could select from five highest degree options on the questionnaire. Twenty (52.6%) participants earned a master's degree, three (7.9%) a Doctor of Education (Ed.D.) degree, 12 (31.6%) hold a Doctor of

Philosophy (Ph.D.), two (5.3%) selected other regarding a doctorate degree, and one (2.6%) participant has an alternative terminal degree.

Table 3 described the employment status by confirming eight (21.1%) participants hold a special appointment (non-tenure track), 13 (34.2%) have a tenure-track (pre-tenure or probationary), 16 (42.1%) tenured, and one (2.6%) adjunct instructor regarding contractual agreements. Thirteen (34.2%) participants conveyed making \$49,999 or less, 15 (39.5%) reported making between \$50,000-\$59,999 annually, three (7.9%) selected their salary range between \$60,000-\$69,000, and seven (18.5%) revealed earning between \$70,000-\$89,999 annually for their base salary defined by their contract. Also, four (10.5%) respondents selected their faculty rank as instructor, 18 (47.4%) assistant professors, 11 (28.9%) were associate professors, and five (13.2%) achieved full professor status. Furthermore, 20 (52.6%) completers noted they do not hold a supervisory role, whereas six (15.8%) participants were department chairs, six (15.8%) hold program director titles, and six (15.8%) claimed other as their associated supervisory role. The sample was composed of mostly White, married, assistant professors in a non-supervisory role, making between \$50,000-\$59,999 annually based on their contract.

The final demographic variable evaluated the participants by department affiliation. One (2.6%) from Art, two (5.3%) from Business, three (7.9%) from Communication Arts, three (7.9%) from Computer Systems & Software Engineering, five (13.2%) from Kinesiology & Human Performance, one (2.6%) from Language & Literature, two (5.3%) from Mathematics, four (10.5%) from Music, two (5.3%) Science, two (5.3%) from Social Science, two (5.3%) from Technology Education, 10 (26.3%) from the School of Education & Graduate Studies, and one (2.6%) did not select a department relationship. Table 4 provides a comprehensive description for the 38 participants.

Table 4*Participants' Descriptions from Questionnaire*

| Participant Number | Gender | Ethnicity | Highest Degree | Employment Status | Faculty Rank | Supervisory Role |
|--------------------|--------|-----------|----------------|-------------------|--------------|------------------|
| P1 | M | W | Master's | SA | Inst. | N |
| P2 | M | W | Master's | SA | Inst. | Y |
| P3 | M | W | Master's | SA | Asst. Prof. | N |
| P4 | F | W | Master's | SA | Inst. | N |
| P5 | F | W | Master's | SA | Asst. Prof. | Y |
| P6 | F | W | Master's | SA | Asst. Prof. | N |
| P7 | F | W | Ph.D. | SA | Asst. Prof. | N |
| P8 | F | W | Ph.D. | SA | Assoc. Prof. | Y |
| P9 | M | AA | Master's | TT | Asst. Prof | Y |
| P10 | M | W | Master's | TT | Asst. Prof. | N |
| P11 | M | W | Master's | TT | Asst. Prof. | Y |
| P12 | M | W | Master's | TT | Asst. Prof. | Y |
| P13 | F | W | Master's | TT | Asst. Prof. | N |
| P14 | F | W | Master's | TT | Asst. Prof. | N |
| P15 | F | W | Ed.D. | TT | Asst. Prof. | N |
| P16 | F | O | Ed.D. | TT | Assoc. Prof. | N |
| P17 | M | W | Ph.D. | TT | Asst. Prof. | Y |
| P18 | M | O | Ph.D. | TT | Asst. Prof | N |
| P19 | M | W | Ph.D. | TT | Prof. | Y |
| P20 | M | HL | Doc: Other | TT | Asst. Prof. | N |
| P21 | F | W | Other | TT | Asst. Prof. | N |
| P22 | M | W | Master's | T | Asst. Prof. | N |
| P23 | M | W | Master's | T | Assoc. Prof. | Y |
| P24 | M | W | Master's | T | Assoc. Prof. | Y |
| P25 | F | W | Master's | T | Asst. Prof. | N |
| P26 | F | W | Master's | T | Asst. Prof. | Y |
| P27 | F | W | Master's | T | Assoc. Prof. | Y |
| P28 | F | W | Master's | T | Assoc. Prof. | N |
| P29 | F | W | Master's | T | Assoc. Prof. | N |
| P30 | M | W | Ed.D. | T | Prof. | Y |

| Participant Number | Gender | Ethnicity | Highest Degree | Employment Status | Faculty Rank | Supervisory Role |
|--------------------|--------|-----------|----------------|-------------------|--------------|------------------|
| P31 | M | W | Ph.D. | T | Assoc. Prof. | Y |
| P32 | M | W | Ph.D. | T | Prof. | Y |
| P33 | M | W | Ph.D. | T | Prof | Y |
| P34 | F | W | Ph.D. | T | Assoc. Prof. | N |
| P35 | F | W | Ph.D. | T | Assoc. Prof. | N |
| P36 | F | W | Ph.D. | T | Assoc. Prof. | Y |
| P37 | F | W | Ph.D. | T | Prof. | Y |
| P38 | M | W | Doc: Other | AI | Instr. | N |

Note: P = participant; M = male; F = female; W = White; AA = Asian American; HL = Hispanic or Latino; O = Other; Ph.D. = Doctor of Philosophy; Ed.D. = Doctor of Education; Doc: Other = Alternative Doctorate Degree; SA = special appointment; TT = tenure-track; T = tenured; AI = adjunct instructor; Inst. = instructor; Asst. Prof. = assistant professor; Assoc. Prof. = Associate Professor; Prof. = Professor; Y = yes, the participant holds a supervisory role; N = no, the participant does not hold a supervisory role

In addition to completing the questionnaire, five participants expressed interest and committed to contributing to the supportive focus group discussion. The researcher conducted one focus group among the five participants, who also completed the questionnaire. The five focus group participants' demographics included three men and two women. Each participant held differing faculty ranks and supervisory responsibilities, including a professor, associate professor, assistant professor, adjunct instructor, and a special appointment instructor. One participant was a department chair, and all five participants represented various departments, increasing the range of experiences. Two out of five participants were tenured, one was tenure-track (pre-tenure or probationary), and two were on a non-tenure track contract. Table 5 provides a description of the focus group participants.

Table 5*Participants' Demographics – Focus Group*

| Participants | Gender | Highest Degree | Faculty Status | Supervisory Role |
|--------------|--------|----------------|---------------------|------------------|
| A | Female | Master's | Instructor | Yes |
| B | Female | Master's | Associate Professor | No |
| C | Male | Master's | Instructor | No |
| D | Male | Doctorate | Assistant Professor | No |
| E | Male | Doctorate | Professor | Yes |

Note: Participants who selected *yes* to a supervisory role are either a department chair, program director, or other.

Primary Research Question 1 Findings: What is the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction for faculty members in a Midwest institution of higher education?

For this study, the researcher took two variables to determine if a relationship existed, mentoring and job satisfaction. The Pearson product-moment coefficient (Pearson r) was the best statistical test based on the associated assumptions. As mentioned above, the study has two variables, mentoring (predictor variable) and job satisfaction (outcome variable) and are measured on a continuous scale using the same Likert scale answer options. Each participant completed the Mentorship Effectiveness Scale and the Job Satisfaction Survey satisfying the paired variables' assumptions. In an attempt to meet assumption two, the researcher ran a nine-step procedure and created a scatterplot that determined there was, in fact, a linear relationship between mentoring and job satisfaction among faculty members in higher education. During the assessment of linearity, the researcher observed two significant outliers.

Outliers are participants' scores that significantly differ and do not fit the pattern of other individuals' data and need consideration as special cases (Fraenkel et al., 2012). Rousseeuw and Hubert (2017) provided useful suggestions on the appropriate removal of outliers. Outliers may cause significant data discrepancies due to participant error or entry error and may have a

harmful effect on data analysis (Rousseeuw & Hubert, 2017). Rousseeuw and Hubert suggested identifying outliers by their large deviation from the rest of the set. In essence of this study, two participants' scores were considered outliers.

The researcher implemented Rousseeuw and Hubert's suggestions and observed a deviation of 21 on the MES for the two cases deemed outliers. Out of a possible 60 points, the two outlier cases scored a 33, drastically lower than the remaining cases, which had a mean score of 54. The outlying data sets were rejected in an effort to generalize the findings of the research and placate the third assumption. However, the analysis outcomes did not significantly change or alter after removing the two outliers. The two outlying participants identified themselves as female associate professors in different departments. The outlying data sets reflected extremely low scores on the Mentorship Effectiveness Scale.

The researcher ran a Shapiro-Wilk test to determine if the instrument outcomes measuring mentoring and job satisfaction were normally distributed. The test for normality satisfies the fifth and final assumption for appropriate use of the Pearson product-moment correlation statistical test. As assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p < .05$), not all variables were normally distributed in Table 6.

Table 6

Shapiro-Wilk Test for Normality

| Instrument | Shapiro-Wilk | | |
|------------|--------------|-----------|-------------------|
| | <i>W</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>p</i> |
| MES Score | .878 | 38 | .001 ^a |
| JSS Score | .964 | 38 | .260 ^b |

Note: *W* = test of W, *df* = degrees of freedom, *p* = significance level

^a Scores in this variable are not normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p < .05$)

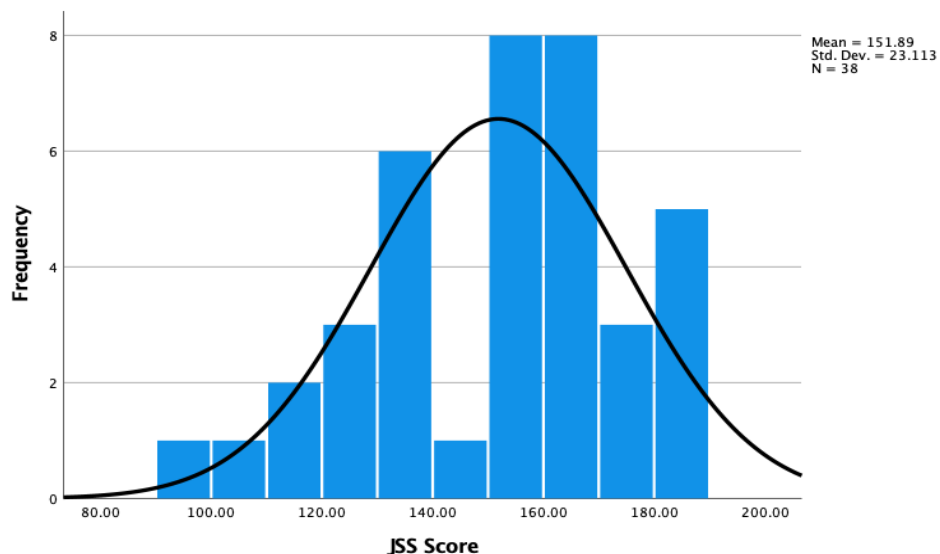
^b Scores in this variable are normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$)

The researcher examined the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality, the skewness and kurtosis calculations, and the visual inspection of the histograms and determined a normal distribution among the JSS scores occurred; however, the scores for the MES demonstrated a minimal negative skewness. Because borderline normality scores (i.e., skewness, kurtosis) were obtained with the MES, the researcher decided to analyze the data with both, Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation (parametric) and Spearman's Correlation (non-parametric) tests. Similar outcomes were obtained, that is, there was no correlation between MES and JSS scores. Similar outcomes were produced using the two methods, which justified using Pearson's product-moment correlation. Given the borderline violation of normality, it was still appropriate to use Pearson product-moment and provide confirmation that there is no violation.

The outcome variable of job satisfaction was the variable of interest and fell within the parameters to constitute a normal distribution, as shown in the Figure 1 histogram.

Figure 1

Histogram – Normal Distribution of the Job Satisfaction Survey

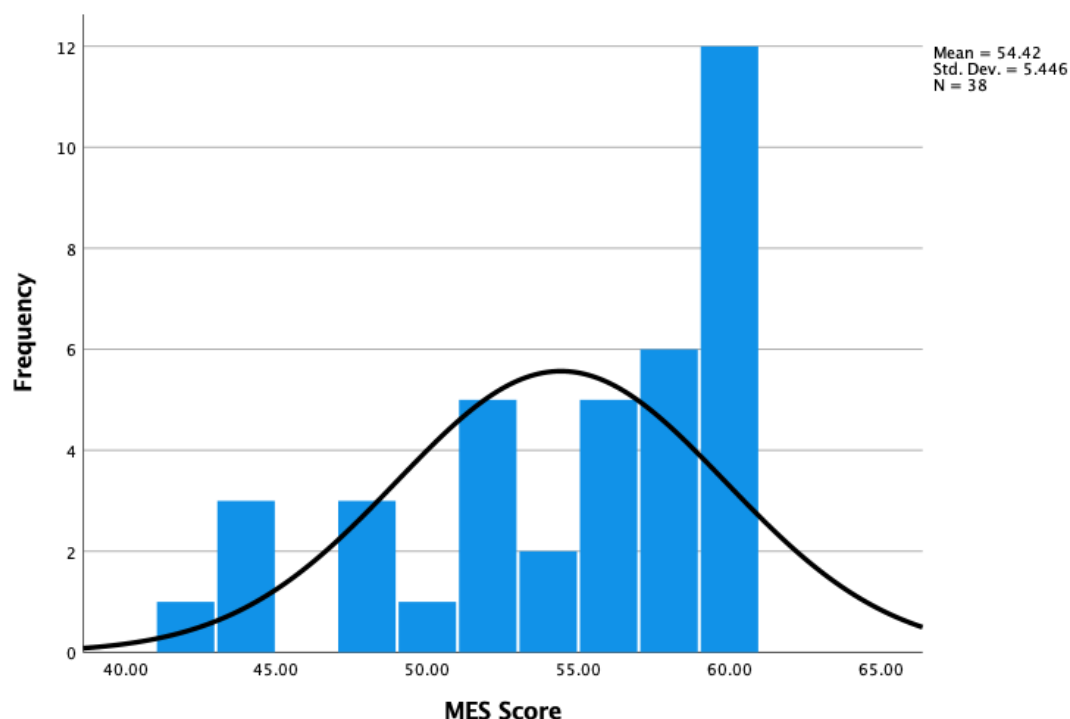


Note: The Figure 1 histogram shows the symmetrical distribution ($z = -1.24$) of the Job Satisfaction Survey Scores.

The Mentorship Effectiveness Scale or mentoring showed a slight negatively skewed histogram that indicated the majority of respondents obtained scores on the Mentorship Effectiveness Scale that were higher than the mean (Figure 2).

Figure 2

Histogram – Distribution of Mentorship Effectiveness Scale



Note: The histogram demonstrates the asymmetrical distribution of the Mentorship Effectiveness Scale scores. Figure 2 shows that participants rated to the right side of the histogram, displaying a borderline negative skewness ($z = -2.27$).

Skewness is a measure of symmetry or a lack of balance. When observing a histogram, the data sets are distributed in a bell-shaped curve when the data represents normal distribution as in the Job Satisfaction Survey results. If data are predominately on one side or the other, as in the Mentorship Effectiveness Scale findings, the data are considered skewed. Kurtosis measures if data are *heavy-tailed* or *light-tailed* relative to an expected normal distribution. Data sets with high kurtosis tend to have significant outliers (Fraenkel, et al., 2012).

The desirable skewness values for the normal distribution of data should be near 0. The values for asymmetry and kurtosis between -2 and +2 were considered acceptable evidence to prove normal distribution (George & Mallery, 2010). The sample size was less than 50; therefore, the researcher calculated z by dividing the skewness and kurtosis by the associated standard error. The z – test is a hypothesis test to assist the researcher to either accept or reject the null hypothesis. The outcome showed a skewness z of -2.27 and kurtosis of -0.393 in relation to the MES score and a skewness z of -1.24 and kurtosis of .062 when calculated for the score of the Job Satisfaction Survey (see Table 7).

Table 7

Skewness and Kurtosis of the Mentorship Effectiveness Scale and the Job Satisfaction Survey

| Instrument | Skewness, Kurtosis, and Standard Error | | | | |
|------------|--|-----------------|-------|-----------------|--------|
| | n | Skewness (S.E.) | z | Kurtosis (S.E.) | z |
| MES Score | 38 | -.870 (.383) | -2.27 | -.295 (.750) | -0.393 |
| JSS Score | 38 | -.467 (.378) | -1.24 | -.467 (.750) | .062 |

Note. n = # of participants, $Z_{skewness} = S/S.E.skewness$, $Z_{kurtosis} = K/S.E.kurtosis$

A total of 38 participants completed both instruments in the questionnaire. Table 8 displays the descriptive statistics for the MES and the JSS. The MES showed a mean value of 54.42 ($SD = 5.45$). The minimum MES composite score was 42, with a maximum score of 60, the highest score possible for the instrument. The JSS displayed a mean value of 151.89 ($SD = 23.11$), approximately 15 points higher than the American normative values ($M = 137.20$) for higher education (see Appendix G). The minimum JSS score was 96, with a maximum score of 189. The highest possible score for the JSS is 216, according to Spector's (2020) *Instructions to Scoring the Job Satisfaction Survey* (see Appendix E).

Table 8*Descriptive Statistics: Mentorship Effectiveness Score and the Job Satisfaction Survey*

| Instrument | <i>n</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|------------|----------|----------|-----------|
| MES Score | 38 | 54.42 | 5.45 |
| JSS Score | 38 | 151.89 | 23.11 |

Note: n = # of participants, M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation

A Pearson product-moment correlation assessed the relationship between mentoring and job satisfaction among faculty at a Midwest institution of higher education. Table 9 showed there was no statistically significant correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction. Therefore, we can accept the null hypothesis and reject the alternate hypothesis.

Table 9*Correlational Statistics: Mentorship Effectiveness Scale and the Job Satisfaction Survey*

| | Instrument | MES Score | JSS Score |
|-----------|---------------------|-----------|-----------|
| MES Score | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .111 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | -- | .506 |
| | n | 38 | 38 |
| JSS Score | Pearson Correlation | -- | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | -- | -- |
| | n | -- | 38 |

Note: n = # of participants, $0.1 < |r| < .3$ = small correlation, $0.3 < |r| < .5$ = medium/moderate correlation, $|r| > .5$ = large/strong correlation

Secondary Research Question 1 Findings: What is the importance of mentoring relationships for faculty at a Midwest institution of higher education?

The researcher used direct quotes from the single, one-hour long focus group discussion that included five participants and Question 4, the open-ended question in the *Assessing Mentoring Relationships* portion of the questionnaire (Appendix D), to answer the research

question. As stated in Chapter 3, the researcher did not conduct a content analysis but selected relevant quotes to illustrate the participants' voice.

During the focus group discussion, the five contributors were able to visually see the five questions, one at a time, via online slides, during the discussion. Quotes were taken from the focus group to represent better the main ideas regarding the association between job satisfaction and mentorship, according to the faculty. Table 10 shows quotes from the focus group discussion.

Table 10

Focus Group Question #1 and Focus Group Responses

| Focus Group Questions | Focus Group Participant Responses |
|---|--|
| Q1. What is the importance of mentoring relationships at a Midwest institution of higher education? | <p>“Establishing shared expectations of work performance, departmental goals, and building a departmental culture are enhanced by mentoring relationships. On a more personal level, developing a sense of empathy for each other and a shared commitment to each other’s success and fulfillment. That includes as people move to other jobs and institutions.” (Participant E)</p> <p>“I appreciate collaborative connections with other faculty members and building community. I find that it's a two-way relationship where we support each other in differing areas of knowledge and expertise.” (Participant B)</p> <p>“Mentoring is important to help foster growth with a new generation of teachers. Having someone that you can lean on can help both make the profession less stressful and provide useful knowledge and life-experience applicable to the job.” (Participant C)</p> <p>“One of the significant values of mentoring is building relationships with individual faculty, whether it's within the department or other parts of the institution. We get siloed and there is value in building relationships with people outside of the department. If you have questions, concerns, frustrations, or if you need to learn about something that's unrelated to your</p> |

| Focus Group Questions | Focus Group Participant Responses |
|--|--|
| Q2. What qualities do you look for in an informal or formal mentor? | <p data-bbox="634 254 1409 432">day-to-day work. In the Midwest we tend not to communicate really well, and so the mentor is someone who can give guidance about institutional practices, or things that you are not being told, that you should be aware of.” (Participant E)</p> <p data-bbox="540 459 1386 638">“In the Midwest, we have a higher faculty turnover rate than some other [institutions], and we often have a younger faculty base. Midwest institutions tend to be career starting points so, having a mentor to show you how academia works is hugely beneficial.” (Participant D)</p> <p data-bbox="540 665 1386 768">“For me, it is trust. I have to be able to trust that person, so I know I’m getting correct information and guidance.” (Participant B)</p> <p data-bbox="540 810 1406 1098">“The [mentor’s] intentions should be genuine and strive to lead by example. I want my mentor to be somebody that I look up to and be inspired by. I think that it is essential to have those qualities. That you are able to inspire the person you are mentoring. Another heavily discussed topic revolves around the mentor’s willingness to dedicate time explaining institutional processes and procedures, regardless of the subject matter.” (Participant A)</p> <p data-bbox="540 1140 1414 1354">“I look for not only someone who knows the ropes, but really knows how to explain processes and procedure well even if it is something that seems so basic to them. As an experienced faculty member, they can explain it and not make you feel like a lesser person for not having known all of the [expectations].” (Participant D)</p> <p data-bbox="540 1381 1414 1560">“Not everybody makes for a good mentor. You want somebody who has the qualities and implements them as a good mentor. I want a mentor who not necessarily acts in the interest of the institution but also acts in the interest of the mentee.” (Participant C)</p> |
| Q3. What are your expectations of a meaningful mentoring relationship? | <p data-bbox="540 1587 1393 1766">“My mentoring relationship is important to me because my mentor knows me personally, works in my field, has intimate knowledge of my career goals, and also provides candid advice that speaks to both my discipline and the broader space of higher education.” (Participant E)</p> <p data-bbox="540 1801 1401 1871">“There needs to be an altruistic component to the relationship. [The following scenario cannot happen], I scratched your back,</p> |

| Focus Group Questions | Focus Group Participant Responses |
|--|---|
| | <p>now you scratch mine, and if something comes up in this committee or something comes up in department you better support me or else, I'm going to give you the wrong advice next time. There is a great risk if the mentor is going to use the mentee to their own benefit." (Participant D)</p> <p>"There has to be a two-way respect element to the relationship, and I think it has to start very early on, if not day one." (Participant B)</p> <p>"If the mentee is not getting what they need or if they're being told what to do, not respected for what they bring to the work environment, then they probably should be able to terminate the [mentoring] relationship and find somebody else they connect with personally and on a professional level." (Participant C)</p> |
| Q4. In what ways do informal and formal mentoring relationships affect job satisfaction? | <p>"If the mentor is really doing their best to help the mentee, then it should have a positive effect on job satisfaction for the mentee. The danger is that [mentoring] can be an enormous drain on the mentor. Setting up a formal mentor mentee relationship. Requires strong boundaries to make sure that everyone's job satisfaction is positively impacted. [Mentors and mentees] have different needs and varying demands on time. The demands on mentoring include an immense expenditure on the mentor's energy and attention." (Participant D)</p> <p>"This [institution] maybe a starting point in careers for a lot of people who are not well compensated, which is one of the reasons why it's a starting place for a lot of people. They may move on, but what keeps people [at the institution] is the satisfaction of working with people they respect and the relationships that are built. I know people who have left this institution, but they left a year or two after they might have because they didn't want to sever those relationships. I think job satisfaction is definitely tied with the people we work with along with compensation and other things. But the mentoring relationships can actually help to establish a community." (Participant E)</p> |
| Q5. How do mentoring relationships affect job satisfaction | <p>"Junior faculty at a higher education institution want a mentor-mentee relationship that is going to be much more related to</p> |

| Focus Group Questions | Focus Group Participant Responses |
|---|--|
| based on faculty status (special appointment, tenure-track, tenured)? | <p>job satisfaction. They need somebody they can vent to and ask for professional advice.” (Participant C)</p> <p>“Just because you come to a certain point in your career doesn't mean you're done learning. When faculty near [retirement], a lot of those relationships become more of a collaboration and a collegial relationship instead of a mentorship. They become confidants.” (Participant E)</p> |

According to the focus group, meaningful mentoring relationships translate differently between faculty members depending on what they need or expect from their mentor. The connection should not be one-sided and only benefit one member. Also, there should not be an expectation to receive in return for mentoring advice. The focus group agreed that not all faculty members have the soft skills for certain aspects of mentoring, but one may excel concerning institutional practices' logistics. The discussion expanded and identified the mentor and mentee's option to discontinue the mentorship and seek different individuals that meet their personal and professional needs if the circumstance did not enhance personal or professional core values.

Personal outcome expectations of informal or formal mentoring may differ depending on individuals' strengths and weaknesses. The mentee may express needs above and beyond the cognitive and time resources available to the mentor. In this case, a participant describes a relative's personal experience and how the mentoring relationship affected the mentor's job satisfaction by straining the demands on their time and patience with new employees.

One participant described their experience as a first-year faculty member at the participating institution of higher education. The participant, an associate professor, defined the required first-year experience as a reading group and an opportunity to collaborate with other

first-year faculty members (Participant B). Although the individual did not find value in the required first-year experience, they found “value in first-year mentoring” with seasoned faculty members. They suggested implementing an alternative mentoring process in lieu of the current reading group.

The focus group discussion further supported the benefit of a first-year or novice mentoring program as “some faculty in higher education do not have formal teaching training. A mentorship program needs to serve the role of ‘this is how you teach; this is classroom management’” (Participant C). The focus group participants continued the conversation and pondered the unwritten expectation to serve as a mentor when employed in higher education. “There is an expectation for faculty members to come in and be mentors. If you don't know how to mentor, if you've never had a mentor, how are you supposed to then mentor to a [colleague] who is looking for lifelong guidance...?” (Participant C).

The focus group participant who identified themselves as an instructor, eluded that they did not feel their campus role was essential or valued. The contributor said the “institution could replace them at any moment and thought it would not be worth the mentor’s time to acclimatize the adjunct faculty member to institutional practice” (Participant C). Participant E emphasized the importance and value of a long-term adjunct instructor and noted that it “needs to be communicated better regarding how valued special appointments and adjuncts are to the department and institution.”

In addition, four quantitative questions were evaluated in *Assessing Mentoring Relationships* (see Appendix D). One hundred percent of the 38 participants agreed that mentoring relationships were important in the workplace, 35 (92%) of participants claimed they had at least one informal or formal mentor on or off the participating campus, 36 (95%)

participants said informal or formal mentoring relationships were valuable to them. When asked if the mentoring relationships contributed to their job satisfaction, 35 out of 38 participants agreed. Table 11 displays participants' quotes from the open-ended question #4 in the *Assessing Mentoring Relationships* segment of the questionnaire (see Appendix D).

Table 11

Assessing Mentoring Relationships Question #4

| Open-ended Question #4 | Participant Responses |
|--|--|
| Please describe the elements of a mentoring relationship that are meaningful or provide value for you. | <p>“Someone to bounce ideas off of, provide validation or suggestions, someone who cares” (P26)</p> <p>“Constant guidance and feedback” (P1)</p> <p>“I find that my safe connection with my mentor allows me to vent, seek advice and celebrate successes.” (P6)</p> <p>“I appreciate collaborative connections with other faculty members, building community. I find that it's a two-way relationship where we support each other in differing areas of knowledge and expertise.” (P5)</p> <p>“Provides insight into aspects of my job that I'm not familiar with.” (P28)</p> <p>“Trust. Confidentiality. Empathy. Experience or Awareness of the Situation.” (P19)</p> <p>“I enjoy helping less experienced faculty grow in their professional careers.” (P30)</p> <p>“Advice, just listen, call any time, friendship.” (P37)</p> <p>“Experience, knowledge of university practices and history.” (P34)</p> |

| Open-ended Question #4 | Participant Responses |
|------------------------|--|
| | <p>“Being able to have an open dialog and being able to ask questions of someone that has been in your shoes but also has a working knowledge of campus and department policies and procedures. This dialog provides reassurance that you are working on the right path and doing well.” (P10)</p> |
| | <p>“Being able to run ideas by someone for an honest opinion.” (P36)</p> |
| | <p>“Belongingness; Encouragement; Guide; Friendliness; Support.” (P18)</p> |
| | <p>“The guidance and communication of the mentor's expectations of my role in the university.” (P2)</p> |
| | <p>“I appreciate feedback, constructive criticism and suggestions.” (P15)</p> |
| | <p>“Assistance on procedural and administrative issues.” (P20)</p> |
| | <p>“Trust and Communication are key to building meaningful relationships in the workplace.” (P32)</p> |
| | <p>“Gaining feedback. Gaining guidance. Navigating unwritten rules.” (P8)</p> |
| | <p>“Ease’s stress, helps me perform to the best of my ability.” (P27)</p> |
| | <p>“Being able to ask questions without judgement and my mentor to offer me opportunities to improve as a professional.” (P4)</p> |
| | <p>“Support and camaraderie.” (P35)</p> |
| | <p>“Establishing shared expectations of work performance, departmental goals and building a departmental culture. On a more personal level, developing a sense of empathy for each other and a shared commitment to each other’s’ success and fulfillment. That includes as people move to other jobs and institutions.” (P31)</p> |
| | <p>“Defining the varied duties required of position and the reporting requirements therein - including why and to whom.” (P11)</p> |

| Open-ended Question #4 | Participant Responses |
|------------------------|---|
| | <p>“The ability to help someone else succeed and feel connected.” (P23)</p> <p>“The tenure process can be tenuous and having someone who has gone before to show way is invaluable.” (P21)</p> <p>“Honest feedback, professional support and guidance, building of professional network.” (P29)</p> <p>“Informal mentoring relationships are valuable for retention of faculty seeking advice and guidance both inside and outside the department unit.” (P25)</p> <p>“Advice from faculty heads off issues before they begin, making us function more efficiently as a team.” (P38)</p> <p>“Improve the teaching skill, improve the confident in teaching.” (P9)</p> |

A participant asked the researcher about the goals upon completing the study and said they would "would love to serve as a faculty mentor." The participant stated, “they are currently an informal consultant for the platform to showcase artifacts and narratives required for the evaluation, promotion, and tenure process.” The individual claimed they receive multiple inquiries about technology platforms and implementing those platforms for classroom delivery, personal, and professional purposes. The focus group concluded the need for identified mentors in designated areas focusing on faculty acclimatization, professional development, and curricular design is imperative for novice and seasoned faculty members.

Secondary Research Question 2 Findings: How does the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction become impacted by demographic variables?

The following section examines the correlations between mentoring and job satisfaction across gender, ethnicity, highest degree earned, employment status, and faculty rank. In the

following sections, each demographic variable will be presented along with the descriptive and inferential analyses conducted.

Gender

Gender was the first demographic variable investigated. Out of the four selection options: male, female, non-binary, and other, participants only identified themselves as male or female. Therefore, there were no data for non-binary or other gender identification options. Participant numbers for gender were even with, men accounting for 19 participants and women representation at 19.

The means for the MES and JSS were unremarkable when compared between genders. However, females have a broader deviation range for the job satisfaction survey. However, similarities existed among the standard deviations on the Mentorship Effectiveness Survey. The female standard deviation for the MES was ± 5.41 and ± 26.03 for the JSS compared to ± 5.60 and ± 19.97 respectively for male respondents (see Table 12). There was no correlation between mentorship and job satisfaction across men and women.

Table 12

Descriptive statistics for Mentorship Effectiveness Scale and Job Satisfaction Survey by Gender

| Instrument | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>n</i> |
|---------------|----------|-----------|----------|
| <u>Male</u> | | | |
| MES Score | 54.11 | 5.60 | 19 |
| JSS Score | 155.11 | 19.97 | 19 |
| <u>Female</u> | | | |
| MES Score | 54.74 | 5.41 | 19 |
| JSS Score | 148.68 | 26.03 | 19 |

Note: M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation, n = # of participants

Ethnicity

The second demographic variable, ethnicity, included nine selection options: African American, Asian American, Hispanic or Latino, Pacific Islander, Native American or American Indian, White, Two or more, Other, and Prefer not to answer. White and Other constituted 95% of the responses. Thirty-four respondents identified as White, two were Other, one was Hispanic or Latino, and one was Asian American.

The MES mean scores were lower ($M = 53.97$) for those identifying as White compared to those who identified as Other ($M = 59.50$). Table 13 displays the descriptive data and showed higher variability among White participants with a standard deviation of 5.52 compared to 0.71 of Other. The JSS mean scores were also lower ($M = 150.32$) in those representing White compared to those representing Other ($M = 148.68$). A significant differential in scores was noted regarding the standard deviations: White ($SD = 23.18$) and Other ($SD = 4.95$). Due to sample size, no correlations were run among ethnicity, the MES, and the JSS.

Table 13

Descriptive statistics for Mentorship Effectiveness Scale and Job Satisfaction Survey by Ethnicity

| Instrument | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>n</i> |
|--------------|----------|-----------|----------|
| <u>White</u> | | | |
| MES Score | 53.97 | 5.52 | 34 |
| JSS Score | 150.32 | 23.18 | 34 |
| <u>Other</u> | | | |
| MES Score | 59.50 | .707 | 2 |
| JSS Score | 178.50 | 4.95 | 2 |

Note: *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, *n* = # or participants

Highest Degree

Overall, 20 participants hold a master's degree with a mean score on the MES of a 53.30 ($SD = 6.40$) and a mean score of 152.35 ($SD = 21.57$) out of a possible 216 points relating to the

Job Satisfaction Survey. Three contributors holding Doctor of Education degrees had the highest mean MES and JSS scores among the highest degree variable with a 58.33 and 172.00, respectively. The standard deviation of 7.00 associated with the JSS score for Doctor of Education participants was comparable to those holding a master's degree $SD = 6.40$. Twelve individuals with Ph.D.'s had a mean score of 55.17 ($SD = 4.63$) on the MES questionnaire and a JSS mean score of 149.42 ($SD = 21.60$). Two participants holding a doctorate: other had a mean score of 55.00 ($SD = 1.41$) and 160.00 ($SD = 33.94$), the highest degree of deviation for the variable (see Table 14). Due to sample size, no correlation tests were run among the demographic variable highest degree, the MES, and the JSS.

Table 14

Descriptive statistics for Mentorship Effectiveness Scale and Job Satisfaction Survey by Highest Degree

| Instrument | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>n</i> |
|-------------------------|----------|-----------|----------|
| <u>Master's Degree</u> | | | |
| MES Score | 53.30 | 6.40 | 20 |
| JSS Score | 152.35 | 21.57 | 20 |
| <u>Doctorate: Ed.D.</u> | | | |
| MES Score | 58.33 | 1.15 | 3 |
| JSS Score | 172.00 | 7.00 | 3 |
| <u>Doctorate: Ph.D.</u> | | | |
| MES Score | 55.17 | 4.63 | 12 |
| JSS Score | 149.42 | 21.60 | 12 |
| <u>Doctorate: Other</u> | | | |
| MES Score | 55.00 | 1.41 | 2 |
| JSS Score | 160.00 | 33.94 | 2 |

Note: M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation, n = # of participants

Employment Status

The employment status demographic variable investigates responses among adjunct ($n = 1$), special appointment ($n = 8$), tenure-track (pre-tenure or probationary) ($n = 13$), and tenured ($n = 16$) faculty members. The mean scores among the employment variables are similar; however, the special appointment faculty had a mean score of 157.13 ($SD = 27.53$) on the JSS, higher when compared to a 149.31 ($SD = 25.31$) from the tenure-track (pre-tenure or probationary) and a 149.31 ($SD = 18.86$). Although special appointment participants demonstrated a higher mean score, a greater deviation score was noted ($SD = 27.53$). Table 15 displays the descriptive statistics for the demographic variable of employment status. Due to sample size, no correlation tests were run among employment status, the MES, and the JSS.

Table 15

Descriptive statistics for Mentorship Effectiveness Scale and Job Satisfaction Survey by Employment Status

| Instrument | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>n</i> |
|--|----------|-----------|----------|
| <u>Special Appointment</u> | | | |
| MES Score | 53.88 | 6.27 | 8 |
| JSS Score | 157.13 | 27.53 | 8 |
| <u>Tenure-Track (pre-tenure or probationary)</u> | | | |
| MES Score | 56.08 | 3.522 | 13 |
| JSS Score | 149.38 | 25.31 | 13 |
| <u>Tenured</u> | | | |
| MES Score | 53.25 | 6.38 | 16 |
| JSS Score | 149.31 | 18.86 | 16 |

Note: M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation, n = # of participants

Faculty Rank

The last demographic variable analyzed is faculty rank. The faculty ranks at the participating Midwest institution of higher education include instructor ($n = 4$), assistant

professor ($n = 18$), associate professor ($n = 11$), and professor ($n = 5$). The mean responses associated with the MES are relatively similar; however, instructors had a JSS mean score of 164.00 ($SD = 23.83$), assistant professors a 153.89 ($SD = 24.93$), associate professors 145.27 ($SD = 22.48$), and professors 149.60 ($SD = 17.84$). Table 16 provides the descriptive statistics for faculty rank responses. Due to sample size, no correlation tests were run among the demographic variable faculty rank, the MES, and the JSS.

Table 16

Descriptive statistics for Mentorship Effectiveness Scale and Job Satisfaction Survey by Faculty Rank

| Instrument | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>n</i> |
|----------------------------|----------|-----------|----------|
| <u>Instructor</u> | | | |
| MES Score | 53.50 | 5.20 | 4 |
| JSS Score | 164.00 | 23.83 | 4 |
| <u>Assistant Professor</u> | | | |
| MES Score | 55.06 | 5.33 | 18 |
| JSS Score | 153.89 | 24.93 | 18 |
| <u>Associate Professor</u> | | | |
| MES Score | 53.82 | 6.60 | 11 |
| JSS Score | 145.27 | 22.48 | 11 |
| <u>Professor</u> | | | |
| MES Score | 54.20 | 4.55 | 5 |
| JSS Score | 149.60 | 17.84 | 5 |

Note: *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, *n* = # of participants

Conclusion

Chapter 4 presented the descriptive and inferential data results of the study's questionnaire and direct quotes from the open-ended question and the focus group discussion. Although a non-statistically significant correlation matriculated, the descriptive data from the questionnaire instruments and the focus group discussion showed support favoring mentoring

and indicated mentoring had a direct, positive, impact on job satisfaction. Chapter 5 details a summary of the results, interpretation of the findings, and recommendations, in addition to suggestions for further research related to mentoring and job satisfaction among faculty members in higher education.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter five presents a summary of the study and important conclusions are drawn from the previous chapter's data. Specific implications and practical significance of the findings are thoroughly examined in the following sections. The chapter concludes with recommendations for professional practice and further research.

This study aimed to assess the correlation between mentorship and job satisfaction among faculty members employed at a Midwest institution of higher education. Eligible participants included all faculty members who held an adjunct, instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, or professor status according to their annual contract. Through a post-positivist, correlational study, the researcher collected quantitative and supplemental qualitative data via an online questionnaire and a focus group discussion. The purpose of the study was to identify if an association existed between mentoring and job satisfaction in an effort to gain insight into processes that enrich faculty members' career experiences.

The need for this study stemmed from the researcher's conversations with colleagues discussing their desire for a mentoring process and their concerns regarding job satisfaction. The study also grew out of the researcher's past personal experiences as a faculty member who needed to acclimatize to the culture, navigate the tenure and promotion process, and understand the organizational practices of the institution. As an educator, program director, faculty senate president, and future department chair, the researcher intended to highlight and incorporate the aspects of mentoring to facilitate seamless transitions into and throughout a career in academia for current and future colleagues. The researcher aimed to provide instrumental insights to prepare and mentor future educators for the profession, not just the job.

The study aimed to answer three research questions:

Primary RQ

1. What is the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction for faculty members in a Midwest institution of higher education?

Secondary RQs

1. What is the importance of mentoring relationships for faculty at a Midwest institution of higher education?
2. How does the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction become impacted by demographic variables?

Summary of the Findings

At the time of the study, the participating institution employed 144 eligible faculty members. Forty faculty members contributed and completed the online questionnaire; however, two cases with outlying responses were removed, making a final sample of 38 participants. The data indicated that there was a non-statistically significant correlation between the main research variables: mentoring and job satisfaction. also, there was no statistically significant correlations upon disaggregating the demographic variables among the Mentoring Effectiveness Scale (MES) and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS).

In contrast to the correlational analysis, strong evidence suggested that participants valued mentoring, found mentoring effective, and stated that mentoring contributed to their job satisfaction upon examining the descriptive quantitative statistics, qualitative responses from the questionnaire, and focus group discussion. Therefore, the qualitative data, qualitative responses from the questionnaire, and descriptive quantitative statistics showed a strong association between mentoring and the impact on job satisfaction of faculty in higher education.

The following section provides discussion as well as recommendations for practice and further research in alignment with the study's research questions.

Discussion of Research Questions

This section addresses the primary research question and the first secondary research question jointly to provide an interpretation of the quantitative and qualitative data associated with the main research variables: mentoring and job satisfaction. The second secondary research question examines mentoring's effect on job satisfaction by disaggregating the demographic variables. The discussion focuses on significant data findings, from this study, related to the literature regarding the impact of mentoring relationships on job satisfaction. The study's outcomes support the researcher's aspiration to develop mentoring processes for implementation across university campuses.

Primary Research Question 1

What is the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction for faculty members in a Midwest institution of higher education?

Secondary Research Question 1

What is the importance of mentoring relationships for faculty at a Midwest institution of higher education?

The quantitative data unexpectedly indicated a non-statistically significant correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction, which contradicted Anafarta and Apaydin's (2016) findings. On the contrary, overwhelmingly positive statements were gathered during the focus group discussion, on the *Assessing Mentoring Relationships* section within the questionnaire, and in the descriptive quantitative findings regarding mentorship and the impact on job satisfaction. The aforementioned qualitative and descriptive data outcomes aligned with the expected result as

predicted by the literature (e.g., Johnson, 2016; Kiel, 2019; Stankovska et al., 2017; Zachary, 2012).

The qualitative data strongly implied participants valued mentoring, found mentoring effective, and reported mentoring relationships positively impacted job satisfaction. Also, faculty responses suggested that mentoring promoted organizational acclimation, encouraged the development of relationships, provided career advancement opportunities, and fostered an allegiance to the institution (Johnson, 2016; Kiel, 2019; Stankovska et al., 2017; Zachary, 2012).

The expressed characteristics and outcomes of mentoring significantly contribute to job motivation and job satisfaction (Johnson, 2016). First and foremost, mentoring is a process of developing a relationship—a relationship of understanding, unity, and support. In the researcher's experience, a positive relationship fosters collegiality among peers, a sounding board for ideas and concerns, and a cheerleader for success, ultimately contributing to job satisfaction.

The focus group discussion, qualitative data on the questionnaire, and the descriptive quantitative data provided compelling evidence that mentoring contributed to the faculty members' job satisfaction; however, the researcher questioned why a statistically significant correlation did not exist. The following sections discuss the descriptive data, qualitative data, sample size, and technical considerations of mentoring and job satisfaction to interpret the study's findings.

Sample Size. The sample size was 38 and within parameters to evaluate one Midwest institution of higher education. The lack of a statistically significant correlation could have resulted from the relatively small sample size (Hole, n.d.). However, the study proceeded with the number of participants based on Bujang and Baharum's (2016) recommendation that a

sample size of 30 would produce valid results. A possible unforeseen contributor to the number of participants was the COVID-19 pandemic. Faculty were transitioning between various content delivery platforms and navigating the learning curves associated with technology integration to support student learners' engaging environments. At this time, faculty were inundated with emails, so the email invitation to participate in the study may have been overlooked or sent to the incorrect mailbox (e.g., junk mail). In addition to email constraints, faculty members may not have had time to complete the entire questionnaire.

The focus group included five participants who volunteered to contribute via the questionnaire. The decision to move forward with five focus group participants was strongly supported by Krueger and Casey's (2015) evidence that the ideal size for a focus group is between five to eight people. The study's focus group participants had various characteristics of importance, including gender, employment status, faculty rank, supervisory roles, salary, relationship status, and highest degree earned. The varying demographics provided a robust discussion from multiple points of view. Following the study's methodological approach, direct quotes were collated from the participants, rather than conducting an in-depth content analysis, to provide evidence for interpreting the quantitative data.

The researcher considered the focus group participants' reasons for volunteering to contribute to the discussion. The members may have volunteered due to an invested interest in mentoring and job satisfaction similar to the researcher's interest. In addition, the focus group's past mentoring practices and their view of mentoring as essential to their job satisfaction experience may have directed the discussion's outcome, further contributing to the inconsistencies between the quantitative and qualitative data.

Technical Considerations. Another possible explanation for the contrasting quantitative inferential findings related to the technical quality of the instrument utilized to measure job satisfaction. The JSS consisted of nine subsets; however, the subsets had levels of reliability ranging from 0.60 to 0.82. Spector (2020) released a new commercial version, the Job Satisfaction Survey-2 (JSS-2), with improved validity and reconfigured subsets. In fact, the updated JSS-2 claimed a higher overall internal consistency reliability with a coefficient alpha above 0.90. Spector also added an additional subset to assess the overall job satisfaction, which would have been beneficial for this research. Although the JSS-2 was not publicly available, Spector provided the updated JSS-2 subsets: salary, promotion opportunities, supervision, coworkers, tasks, communication, and general satisfaction. The subsets for the JSS and JSS-2 are similar; however, Spector removed three JSS subsets from the JSS-2: nature of work, operating procedures, and contingent rewards. The questions associated with the three subsets removed from the JSS instrument were reorganized within the subsets of the JSS-2.

In addition to the conflicting with the literature, quantitative correlational findings, this study exhibited a discrepancy between the quantitative and qualitative data. The wording on the instruments possibly contributed to the inconsistent findings. The items on the JSS did not relate as closely to the focus group responses as the JSS wording did with the questions on the MES and *Assessing Mentoring Relationships* portions of the questionnaire. Mentoring aligned with the intrinsic components (e.g., nature of work) of the JSS but may not have related to the extrinsic components (e.g., pay).

Another technical consideration was the participants' interpretation of the mentoring definitions and instructions when completing the questionnaire. The MES asked the participants questions regarding their perception of their mentoring relationship as a mentee. Some

participants may have interpreted the questions as if they were answering them as the mentor. The responses to each questionnaire have the potential for a high degree of variability depending on the participant's demeanor and emotional experiences at the exact time of answering the questions. In the end, both the perception of mentoring and job satisfaction are subjective to each participant and their personal interpretation.

Exploration of the compatibility of alternative job satisfaction and mentoring instruments to re-evaluate the quantitative association between the two variables of this study is recommended. The JSS-2 and the Mentor Evaluation Tool (MET) are discussed further in the *Recommendations for Future Research* section.

Descriptive Data. While the correlation was not statistically significant, the descriptive data from the MES and JSS showed that faculty had strong perceptions that they indeed engaged in unofficial mentoring practices; they felt mentoring was effective; and mentoring influenced their job satisfaction. Additionally, the JSS descriptive results indicated that most faculty members experienced satisfaction from their job. The Midwest institution of higher education employs a small number of faculty, and the campus spans approximately three city blocks. Due to the institution's relative size, it promotes a family-type atmosphere where employees have ample opportunity to get to know each other, which may aid in the perception of job satisfaction. Also, faculty serve on numerous university committees and annual evaluation committees. These committees allow faculty members to collaborate, discuss, and gain insight into important university initiatives. Again, these opportunities could provide a venue for faculty to seek informal mentorship that may lead to job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction. The overall mean score on the JSS was approximately 152 points out of 216 total possible points. The faculty score at the participating institution of higher education

was close to the ambivalent range, the area determined by Spector (2020) as representing neither satisfied nor dissatisfied; however, the findings supported that faculty members were within the satisfaction limits. The researcher could not ascertain if the focus group and qualitative data supported the previous statement on job satisfaction. The focus group participants' responses focused heavily on mentoring with minimal attention to job satisfaction. In addition, participants also concentrated on mentoring when answering the questionnaire's open-ended question.

Spector's (2020) *Interpreting Satisfaction Scores with the Job Satisfaction Survey* was utilized to appropriately score the Job Satisfaction Survey ratings (see Appendix F). Upon examination of the JSS subset outcomes, the findings revealed that supervision and nature of work were the highest scoring subsets; conversely, pay and operating procedures were the lowest scoring subsets. Both the high and low scoring subsets fell within Spector's (2020) documented normative score values for higher education participants in the United States (see Appendix G).

Over the past few years, the university system associated with the contributing institution underwent a devastating budget reduction. The budget reduction threatened programs and ultimately faculty positions. In addition to the cutback in academic force, no pay raises were awarded for over two years. Therefore, employees, who were already well below market value pay, were denied the cost of living raises throughout those two years. During the economic downturn, there were inconsistencies and reasonings behind institutional raises for some faculty members when there was the potential for financial exigency.

The university system is bound by open records laws to make salary and budget reports available to the public. Consequently, any faculty member has the right to see individual salaries and justifications for pay raises from the previous academic year. These events called for a salary assessment within the participating institution and comparison assessments from institutions

across the university system. The results showed faculty salaries were well below the College and University Professional Association for Human Resources (CUPA-HR) data. The institution set a goal to raise faculty members' salaries to 85% of the CUPA-HR fair market value. Salaries continue to be a topic of investigation. When salary inconsistencies occur, especially at an open records institution, faculty members are bound to experience dissatisfaction in their job. The fiscal situation has since stabilized but remains volatile with the state's political climate.

The second-lowest score was operating procedures which include the rules and policies governing the practices of the institution. A concern from faculty revolved around the follow-through process. Anecdotally, university committees work on initiatives and implement the procedures and expectations of the initiative, but there appears to be no repercussions for those who do not follow through with the initiative's requirements. This example creates an inconsistent culture of follow-through and an atmosphere that fosters additional work for some decreasing the collegiality and satisfaction within the institution.

The researcher found it encouraging that faculty members rated the subsets of supervision and nature of work high on the JSS. The results showed that faculty members felt their supervisor was competent in their job, ensured fair practices among those within their purview, and demonstrated interest in their faculty's personal and professional endeavors. These qualities were not only important to the faculty members but also to the researcher. According to Locke's Range of Affect Theory (1976), these qualities aligned with the intrinsic factors that promote job satisfaction such as gratitude and recognition. The emotional-affective response one experiences from positive affirmations and recognition from supervisors fosters a sense of pride and joy among faculty members.

The participating institution's administrators and supervisors recognize faculty within their annual evaluations and through an online announcement of an achievement. Also, faculty feel a sense of pride when the institution or the university system recognizes their work and efforts. Institutions implementing recognition awards for service, employment length, degree advancement, excellence, and tenure achievement demonstrate higher job satisfaction levels among faculty members (Tessema et al., 2013). The institution's public recognition ceremonies provide an opportunity for faculty members to be celebrated in front of their family and colleagues. Recognition awards may encourage faculty members to strive for their best work, increasing production and fostering a culture of success and satisfaction.

The sense of pride and satisfaction rolls over into the nature of the work. Faculty members are educators because they are passionate about their discipline and the students they serve. They find enjoyment with the service component of aiding students academically and meaning while helping them navigate through the vulnerable period of young adulthood. Feedback and gratitude from a current or former student can boost an educator's sense of pride and satisfaction within their role.

Mentoring. The distribution of scores on the *Assessing Mentoring Relationships* instrument, a section in the comprehensive questionnaire, indicated that 92% of participants had at least one informal or formal mentor on or off the participating campus. The *Assessing Mentoring Relationships* instrument did not specifically ask participants to differentiate if they experienced informal mentoring or formal mentoring, only if participants perceived the existence of mentoring within their job. Also, 95% of participants said informal or formal mentoring relationships were valuable to them and positively affected their job

satisfaction. The Mentoring Effectiveness Scale (MES) descriptive scores also implied effective mentoring relationships existed, further supporting the faculty's perception of mentoring.

While the participants were employed at the institution, faculty members may have reflected on previous mentoring experiences at different employment places. The instrument did not specifically state that the mentoring relationship had to occur at the participating institution of higher education. No formal mentoring programs existed at the institution. In fact, mentoring opportunities at the participating institution were self-seeking, meaning faculty members needed to personally reach out for mentoring guidance either on campus or off-campus. However, qualitative results and descriptive quantitative results showed that faculty valued the benefits of mentoring relationships and that satisfaction did exist. Still, there is room for improvement by implementing professional development opportunities to disseminate mentoring resources among faculty members.

This study corroborates with Galanek and Campbell (2019) evaluation that implementing mentoring programs are "relatively low-cost and high-reward" that increases employee engagement and retains institutional talent. Furthermore, after reviewing the current literature and conducting the descriptive analyses, the notion that individuals who engage in mentoring have a higher probability of increasing their compensation through career advancement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction is supported (e.g., Johnson, 2016; Kiel, 2019; Sheridan et al., 2015). Also, providing mentoring opportunities for faculty members in higher education fosters an opportunity to sustain a workforce with varying demographics by developing reliable and talented employees.

Although a formal mentoring program does not currently exist on the institution's campus, professional mentoring and the philosophies of Dr. Lois Zachary (2012) are strongly

supported by the researcher. Zachary stated that healthy relationships must develop between the mentee and mentor before effective mentoring can occur. Relationship building progresses in phases. First and foremost, a personal connection needs to happen with a strong foundation of trust, rapport, and empathy to facilitate mutual and professional respect. From the researcher's experience, compatibility and rapport between the mentor and mentee are critical to an effective relationship. The camaraderie supports and challenges each other by engaging in constructive feedback and overcoming personal and professional obstacles. An additional aspect of mentoring is the ability to celebrate goals and achievements with each other. The focus group participants confirmed that camaraderie, support, and celebration of accomplishments are critical to mentorship and do occur on the campus of the participating institution.

Mentoring affects job satisfaction by providing new faculty members opportunities to acclimatize to the institution and organizational structure and cultivate lifelong friendships. In contrast, firm boundaries and deep understanding of each party's demands on time are essential to remember when developing mentoring relationships. The mentoring strains include an immense expenditure of the mentor's energy and attention, especially if the mentee is not committed. The researcher likens this reference to Leck and Wood (2013) theory that the lack of time to commit to the mentoring relationship and deficiency of skills needed to foster mentoring are significant factors that deter effective mentoring relationships. Unfortunately, there is an overdependence on the mentoring process that, in some situations, emits tension in the work environment.

Qualitative Data. Although differing from the quantitative findings, the qualitative data provided a strong argument for the existence of mentoring, mentoring's effectiveness, and mentoring's influence on job satisfaction. The responses from the qualitative sections of the

questionnaire and the focus group discussion offered compelling evidence in favor of implementing informal and formal mentorship practices at any higher education institution. As previously mentioned, the participating institution of higher education does not offer a formal mentoring program and does not provide official resources to facilitate an informal mentoring process. However, participants perceived that mentoring existed, which sufficed in creating a satisfactory experience.

The qualitative findings indicated that higher education faculty sought and expected similar qualities in mentors. Faculty members valued trust, compatibility, genuine intentions, empathy, experience in academia, and communication skills. The highly sought qualities intertwined with Kiel's (2019) research as the relational aspects of mentoring are as important as the organizational aspect. Personal attributes and professional experience are essential; however, the mentor must have the mentee's best interest at heart, be trustworthy and reliable, and make time for the mentee. The reverse is also true. The mentee needs to be invested in the relationship, commit to the time, and show responsibility and initiative.

The focus group responses support the need to develop a deep understanding of the learning process and its contributions to the phases of mentoring. A mentor cannot assume the mentee is familiar with the organizational process and higher education intricacies. Zachary (2012) discusses the elements of the learning process. The first element is unconsciously incompetent; the mentee does not know what they do not know. Something that comes naturally to the mentor may not occur for the mentee, especially if they are unaware of the task. Once the mentee is introduced to that task, they become consciously incompetent, where they realize the task exists, but they are not entirely comfortable with the process. Thirdly, the mentee becomes consciously competent and is comfortable performing the task, which ultimately turns into an

unconsciously competent experience. The unconsciously competent experience happens when the mentee is fluent and confident with the task and could "do it in their sleep" type of scenario.

Understanding the learning process provides a comfortable atmosphere of non-judgment, opens the doors for increased trust in the mentor, and builds confidence in the mentee. The last phase of mentoring is when the relationship transitions into a friendship. The mentee does not heavily rely on the mentor. The researcher has experienced the mentee becoming the mentor and gained a tremendous amount of satisfaction in witnessing a mentee's growth and inspiring the mentee to share their knowledge and development with colleagues.

In collaboration with the process of learning, Participants B and D expected an altruistic component to the relationship that must include a two-way respect element. Participant C felt strongly that either party should be able to terminate the mentoring relationship if there is no development of a personal or professional connection. The expectation to terminate the mentoring relationship was an important aspect to consider. The researcher firmly believes the mentee and mentor can experience a power and control struggle during peer mentoring in higher education, especially if a personal connection is absent. Christie (2014) theory on power and control supports the discussion regarding the need for a genuine, altruistic, two-way mentoring relationship.

This study illuminates three critical suggestions for engaging in mentoring relationships to decrease the presence of a power and control environment. The first suggestion is to ensure compatibility between personalities. Tensions develop if personalities are not equitable and if expectations of the relationships are not clearly defined. The mentee relies on the advice and socialization opportunities afforded to them by their mentor. The mentor may negatively influence the mentee's perception of colleagues and organizational operating practices based on

their prior experiences and assumptions. The second suggestion is for the mentor and mentee to collaborate and set outcomes for professional goals. Examples of professional goals may include developing leadership skills, expanding content delivery methods, and increasing career advancement opportunities. The third suggestion is a recommendation for mentors to commit to transparent communication and provide the mentee with adequate guidance to acclimate to the organization. With the help of these three suggestions, the mentee and mentor should experience elevated levels in their satisfaction which aligns with Christie's (2014) research.

Secondary Research Question 2

How does the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction become impacted by demographic variables?

As indicated earlier (i.e., RQ1), the researcher found a non-statistically significant correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction. The sample size became too small to run a valid Pearson product-moment correlation when disaggregating by gender, ethnicity, highest degree, employment status, and faculty rank demographic variables. However, the disaggregated descriptive statistics indicated the perception of mentoring and the effectiveness of those relationships on an informal basis existed. The descriptive statistics and quantitative responses showed that mentoring experiences contributed to faculty members' job satisfaction at the institution of higher education. Although, this study showed positive perception of mentoring and mentoring's effect on job satisfaction, additional studies need to be conducted with larger demographic representations.

Gender. The sample population of faculty members from the participating higher education institution was evenly distributed among men and women, with 19 participants identifying each gender variable. No participants identified as non-binary.

Mentoring. Men and women both positively rated their perception of mentoring relationships equally high, supporting that they valued their current and past mentoring relationships. This study contradicts the existing literature as it primarily focuses on women and the barriers affecting them developing a mentoring relationship. The high perception rating from women in this study provided a positive picture regarding the effectiveness of mentorship women received; though the study disputed the findings from several researchers, including Blake-Beard (2009), Bynum (2015), Fain and Zachary (2020), Kiel (2019), and Johnson (2016).

The results, however, are supported by Galanek and Campbell (2019) as men and women were both actively engaged in a perceived mentoring relationship and found personal and professional benefits associated with mentoring. The researcher notes the literature is primarily focused on female experiences and needs. However, it is imperative to be thoughtful of gender, gender socialization, and gender identification, "...but avoid assuming that these factors alone will predict salient mentoring needs, relational styles, or professional concerns" in research (Johnson, 2016, p. 175). This study supports the previous statement because although the literature is highly focused on female representation, mentors cannot assume that males expect less out of a mentoring relationship. Both genders perceived mentoring positively, and mentoring added to their job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction. Although men and women felt similarly regarding mentoring, men had a slightly higher degree of job satisfaction than women, according to the findings. This study aligns with several research studies' outcomes (e.g., Rosser, 2004; Seifert & Umbach, 2008; Webber & Rogers, 2018). Women scored their job satisfaction with pay two points lower than men. This study intersects with Webber and Roger's (2018) previous research affirming salary is related to job satisfaction. On average, female faculty members earn approximately 15-22% less

than their male counterparts. There is no question about the long-standing pay and administrative gap among genders in higher education (Bichsel et al., 2017). Out of the 18 participants who selected *supervisor*, only six were females, demonstrating the gender gap among administrators. Further research is recommended to explore if pay gaps exist at the participating higher education institution.

In addition, both men and women rated their satisfaction with the Midwest institution of higher education's operating procedures as 13 out of 24 possible points. Spector (2020) describes operating procedures as the rules and procedures instituted by the organization. He categorizes any subset score between 12-16 as an ambivalent or inconclusive outcome (see Appendix F). Ambivalent or inconclusive outcomes from the study show there is room for improvement with the subset areas.

Ethnicity. The questionnaire contained nine ethnicities: African American; Asian American; Hispanic or Latino; Pacific Islander; Native American or American Indian; White; Two or more; Other; and Prefer not to answer. The participants who identified as Other did not have an opportunity to type in their ethnicity. Therefore, there was no way to determine which ethnicities were represented by Other. The responses demonstrated the absence of ethnic diversity among the sample. Ninety-five percent identified as White compared to five percent identifying within the aforementioned ethnicities. The additional ethnic categories, other than White, could not be correlated due to the small sample size. The overall percentage of minority faculty employed at the target institution was almost 6%, which aligns with Johnson's (2016) predictions of 5%-8% employment across higher education nationwide. A total of four participants in this study identified as a minority with a majority in their first year of employment at the participating institution of higher education.

Mentoring. Participants identifying as White had an average score of almost five points difference compared to a nearly perfect score from those who self-identified in the minority categories on the MES. Although there was a five-point difference, participants in all ethnic categories reported a high level of perception regarding mentoring. This study confirms Johnson's (2016) report that a disproportionately low number of minority faculty exist in higher education. The low minority representation is also accurate to this study as participants self-identifying as other than White only consisted of five percent of the sample.

With approximately 95% of the institution's faculty members identifying as White, the institution must stress the importance of understanding cultural intelligence. Higher education institutions implementing multiracial mentoring practices foster an inviting environment and increase the ability to recruit and retain minority faculty members (Johnson, 2016). Faculty members embracing cultural intelligence can appreciate cultural norms that influence ethnic attributes. Institutions and faculty members incorporating cultural intelligence in developing a mentoring relationship provide an empathetic perspective to the mentoring process.

Job Satisfaction. The descriptive statistics of those identifying as an ethnic minority rated their job satisfaction at a staggering 28 points higher than those who identified as White, which contrasts the current literature. White participants reported a mean score of 150 regarding their job satisfaction rate on the JSS. A mean score of 150 out of a possible 216 points is slightly low in the satisfied category; however, still remained within *satisfied*, according to Spector (2020). Whereas Other's satisfaction ranked high with a mean score of 178 points out of a possible 216 points according to Spector's scoring system (see Appendix F). Meaning and interpretation specific to this study's outcomes could not be confidently assigned due to the small number of minority participants. However, this study's analyses were inconsistent with current

literature surrounding job satisfaction related to ethnicity, which indicated faculty identifying as an ethnic minority are generally less satisfied than White colleagues (e.g., Flaherty, 2021; Hersch & Xiao, 2016; Sabharwal & Corley, 2009). This could be attributed to the small sample size and should be explored further.

Highest Degree and Employment Status. The highest degree variable was examined based on participants' highest degree earned. Participants selected from Associate degree, Bachelor's degree, Master's degree, Doctorate Ed.D., Doctorate: Ph.D., Doctorate: other; or Other degree. The researcher was surprised to find that those holding a Master's degree comprised a majority of the sample. In addition, employment status was based on the status listed on the participants' annual contract as either adjunct, special appointment, non-tenure track, tenure-track, or tenured was evaluated. Special appointment, tenure-track, and tenured represented the most significant majority of the sample.

Mentoring. The MES scores were similar among the highest degree and employment status variables. Both indicated a positive perception of mentoring and that the mentoring relationships were effective. Those holding a Master's degree reported a greater degree of variability when responding to the MES questions, indicating the respondents had individuals with positive regard for the mentoring relationships while others did not. Upon disaggregating the degree types, the sample became too small, leaving an inadequate representation to draw conclusions on groups other than those holding Master's degrees.

The study also uncovered the lack of on-going mentoring after the first-year Reading Group. Professional learning and growth never end. This study indicated that mentoring relationships transitioned into a collaborative and collegial relationship resembling a friendship when a faculty member progressed throughout their career. Focus group members elaborated on

the collegial relationship and stated the mentee and mentor continued to have mutual respect for each other's career achievements. As a faculty member develops in their position, their responsibilities and expectations also advance. For example, colleague relationships and responsibilities may alter to accommodate an administrative role.

The qualitative and quantitative descriptive data support the idea that mentoring exists throughout one's career. This study's supporting evidence to continue informal mentoring processes beyond the tenure expectations concurs with Kiel (2019). Benefits of career-long mentoring include the potential to increase productivity, develop institutional knowledge to pass on to the next generation of educators, prepare for new roles and expanded responsibilities, and enhance professional networks.

Job Satisfaction. The study's results showed general satisfaction among tenure-track and tenured participants, although the mean score was on the lower spectrum of satisfaction, according to Spector (2020). The JSS mean score among tenure-track and tenured participants was 149 out of 216 points. The JSS results also indicated those holding Master's degrees were generally *satisfied* with their job. Participants holding a Master's degree indicated a mean JSS score of 152 out of 216 possible points, which aligned with the study's overall satisfaction score.

During the first year, tenure-track faculty members tend not to have advisees, sit on committees, or develop new curriculum. The gradual introduction into contractual responsibilities provides time to acclimate to the institution, promoting satisfaction within their first-year of employment. Junior and senior faculty are acclimated to their environment and have a better understanding of higher education's intricacies (Johnson, 2016). In addition, they have established courses and do not have the pressure of achieving tenure. All of the mentioned responsibilities may induce stress on some faculty members, which may have contributed to the

JSS satisfaction score reflecting on the low spectrum of satisfied. Nevertheless, the responses to the JSS consistently rank faculty as generally *satisfied*.

Faculty Rank. Faculty rank identification was determined based on the participants selection of adjunct instructor, instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, or professor on the demographic section of the questionnaire. Those identifying as an associate professor represented the most significant majority of the sample.

Mentoring. In terms of mentoring relationships, all groups within the faculty rank variable provided positive responses regarding mentoring's effectiveness. Consistently, the qualitative and quantitative descriptive data outcomes indicate that faculty members at the Midwest institution of higher education actively sought mentoring relationships, and those relationships seemed to impact their professional careers. A career is different than a job. A career is one's profession, whereas a job is a place of employment (Indeed, 2019). Therefore, mentoring can positively impact their careers but have no impact on their job satisfaction.

In terms of faculty status, the focus group's discussion implied that instructors and assistant professors wanted a mentor-mentee relationship as some entering a faculty role are new to teaching but are qualified to teach in higher education due to their professional credentials. In the researcher's experience and according to the focus group discussion, most novice professors are hired with minimal formal pedagogy or andragogy training and lack understanding of the complexities of higher education. The previous examples are leading situations and scenarios where mentoring can increase faculty confidence, satisfaction, and enhance the organization's overall mentoring culture. In addition, as the mentees develop into proficient mentors, the mentees have the ability and confidence to inspire and foster growth in the new generation of educators.

Job Satisfaction. Associate professors and professors are the least satisfied with their employment but remained in the category of *satisfied* with an average score of 147 out of 216 possible points on the JSS. The study's analyses were supported by Kiel (2019) and his findings that by the time faculty reach the rank of associate professor; they have the least job satisfaction of their career. The possible decrease in satisfaction is due to the pressure and fatigue from the tenure process, becoming overwhelmed, and losing their passion. There are increased expectations for associate professors and professors. For example, to mentor novice and junior ranked faculty, lead critical committees on campus, and participate in administrative level advisory committees. Some inexperienced faculty are also hired with years towards tenure and promotion without gaining the organization's background experience. In alignment with Johnson (2016), the researcher provides further explanation by stating some junior faculty come in unprepared for their contractual assignment, which can lead to burnout and, in turn, a decrease in job satisfaction.

Although the mean score on the JSS indicated that faculty were generally *satisfied*, there is always room to improve employee's working environments. One way to enhance job satisfaction is to promote collegiality development over a hierarchical approach. A hierarchical approach occurs when a more senior faculty member (i.e., mentor) imposes a dominant presence over the junior faculty member (i.e., mentee) when establishing a mentoring relationship. When a hierarchical approach occurs, there is a greater chance for a power struggle to transpire. Instead, a faculty member is bound to show satisfaction and commitment to the institution when the institution demonstrates the same dedication and support to the faculty member.

Recommendations for Practice

The researcher's recommendations for practice developed from both the quantitative and supplemental qualitative findings. Although the findings conflicted between the two data sets, similarities in participant responses presented meaningful recommendations for practice. The predictor variable, mentorship, is discussed first with the inclusion of recommendations for universities, mentors, and mentees. The recommendations for practice focusing on the outcome variable, job satisfaction, are discussed as a single construct for institutional and administrative consideration.

Mentorship

University. The organization must take into careful consideration the resources needed to support effective mentoring relationships. Resources of time, skills, and professional development must be afforded from the institution as mentees will continue to seek personal and professional advice to support their career development (Fain & Zachary, 2020; Kiel, 2019; Zachary, 2012). Mentoring requires time and financial resources, two critical pillars of developing a mentoring culture. Developing trust and rapport takes time, and time is an expensive element to an organization (Zachary, 2005). It is in the best interest of higher education institutions to explore the benefits of providing resources and supporting the development of mentoring relationships. One of the resources should include professional development opportunities to enhance mentors' understanding of the learning process and expectations of mentors through the mentoring phases. In addition, the institution needs to consider allocating time for the mentee and mentor to collaborate and create desired outcomes of the informal or formal relationship. The researcher is an advocate for informal mentoring due to personal experience and the research supporting the benefits of informal relationships (Bynum,

2015; Johnson, 2016; Kiel, 2019). Mentors should receive professional development opportunities focusing on the mentee-driven paradigm, as discussed in Chapter 2 by Fischler and Zachary (2009). A mentee-driven paradigm is an approach where the mentee leads the mentoring process. The mentee expresses their outcomes and goals to the mentor and sets the parameters for meeting those goals. In addition, there should be sessions devoted to the principles of adult learning, emotional and cultural intelligence, and the four phases of building and strengthening a successful career-long mentoring relationship as described by Zachary (2012).

Zachary's (2005) *Creating a Mentoring Culture* provides an organizational guide for implementing and developing a mentoring culture within higher education institutions. Zachary lays out infrastructure components to support the development of a mentoring culture. The first and essential step is securing support, commitment, and ongoing participation of the administration. Zachary's recommendations that facilitators must ensure a viable way to connect leaders to learning and mentoring to keep a vested interest in faculty development is supported by this study.

Mentees. The mentee must demonstrate the desire, commitment, and responsibility to enter into a mentoring relationship. Qualities such as time management skills, coachability to succeed in a mentee-driven relationship, a positive attitude, and willingness to learn are supported by Zachary (2021) and are important characteristics for a mentee. Willingness to learn and openness to the process of mentoring will enhance reflection and increase self-awareness. Regular self-awareness exercises contribute to the personal and professional growth of the mentee. The utilization of Zachary (2012) and Kiel's (2019) numerous reflection activities, including *Your Personal Journey Timeline*, *Reflecting on Your Experiences as a Mentee*, and *Reflecting on Your Own Cultural Assumptions* is recommended. In addition, Kiel contributes to

the reflection activities with the inclusion of *Survey for Faculty Needs for Support with Research Writing* and directions on conducting a self-assessment. These activities provide the mentee with an opportunity for self-reflection to facilitate a deeper understanding of their personal and professional goals.

Mentors. This study supports Johnson (2016) and Kiel (2019) regarding the mentor's role in guiding the evaluation, tenure, and promotion process; educating the mentee on the organizational structure and networking; providing constructive feedback; advising the mentee on teaching and research; and encouraging creative scholarship opportunities. To give a practical mentoring experience, the mentor must have the knowledge, personal skills, vulnerability, and motivation to assist a mentee and navigate the unknown of a mentoring relationship. These skills and resources are discussed under the *University* section of this study.

The consideration of Kram's (1985) two aspects of mentoring functions is recommended: career functions and psychosocial functions. The concepts of career functions include the navigation of organizational structure and the navigation of the institution and career advancement opportunities. Psychosocial functions comprise the relationship-building process by developing trust and enhancing the mentees' personal and professional growth (Johnson, 2016). In order for the mentor to develop the knowledge to facilitate efficient and appropriate mentorship relationships, the institution must provide resources and professional development opportunities.

Job Satisfaction

A greater understanding is warranted of how overall leadership, mentoring, work-life balance, and demographics affect job satisfaction. The difference between a job and a career needs to be reiterated. A career is a profession a person enters into, and a job is a particular place

of employment (Indeed, 2019). Future research differentiating whether satisfaction exists or does not exist based on the participant's job or career is recommended. Although satisfaction is subjective, steps should be in place to regularly assess and gauge faculty satisfaction. While institutions tend to explore job satisfaction, remediation actions, if any, fall short, and the areas of concern are not addressed to their full potential.

The institution should consider the intrinsic and extrinsic factors when implementing an assessment of job satisfaction to obtain an evaluation of the faculty members' satisfaction. Topics should reflect similarities to Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey, including pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, performance-based rewards, required rules and procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. In addition, using the intrinsic and extrinsic facets within the Herzberg's Two Factor Theory as a theoretical framework option when assessing job satisfaction is recommended. Herzberg's Two Factor Theory is described further under *Recommendations for Further Research*.

Unsurprisingly, pay and operating procedures were scored the lowest on the JSS. As a recommendation to improve employees' pay satisfaction, the institution should ensure fair market value salaries according to the CUPA-HR data. Not only should the institution strive to meet the fair market value, but it should also have transparent communications regarding the process and procedures for setting salary figures, institutional raises (outside of the state's cost of living raises), and promotion/tenure incentives.

In terms of operating procedures (required rules and procedures), the results highlighted the participating faculty members' ongoing concern about faculty workloads. The typical faculty workload at the contributing institution is 80% teaching, 10% scholarship, and 10% service. Over the years, numerous discussions have taken place at the participating institution regarding

faculty workload concerns, primarily determining if and when a faculty member is going above and beyond the category percentage of their contract. A subcommittee evaluated responsibilities and time commitment of each university committee and designed tiered chart to provide a quantitative approach to satisfy the 10% service component. The 10% service component encompasses faculty service to the university, community, and professional organizations. The 10% scholarship component is satisfied by fulfilling five categories which may include professional development, grants and contracts, honors and awards, creative endeavors, external consulting, editor for professional organization, and scholarly and student research. The 80% teaching component is considered full-time when a faculty member holds a 12-credit teaching load.

Ultimately, the faculty member needs to advocate for themselves to ensure their combined responsibilities remain within their contractual obligations. Unfortunately, the threat of evaluation for tenure and promotion tends to draw novice faculty members to take on additional work and experience burn-out before tenure occurs. There are also "yes" employees who agree to sit on multiple committees and commit to extra responsibilities. The faculty member's committee for annual evaluation should be cognizant about evaluating the faculty member's over-involvement to dissuade early burn-out situations. The committee is there to provide guidance and protect the faculty member from contributing too much of their time above and beyond their contractual obligations. When this does not happen, institutions experience faculty dissatisfaction.

Recommendations for Further Research

This section will provide methodology-related recommendations for further research geared towards methodological approaches, sample size, instrumentation considerations, expansion of the research variables: mentoring and job satisfaction, and financial considerations.

Methodology

The first recommendation is to conduct a comparative study between an institution of similar size and demographics that currently incorporates a formal mentoring program and evaluate the association between mentoring and job satisfaction. This study was conducted at an institution that does not integrate a formal mentoring program beyond a first-year reading group and informational meetings on the academic year's first day. A study to compare the impact of job satisfaction for those who participate in an embedded formal mentoring program compared to those who seek out an informal mentor is recommended. As previously stated, this study did not conduct a comparison study due to the researcher's direct interest in the association between mentoring and faculty job satisfaction at the participating institution.

Sample Size

The second recommendation is to expand the sample population beyond the participants of one institution. The study outcomes are generalizable to only the participating Midwest institution of higher education, which met the scope of the methodology. However, including institutions of similar size and demographics would allow the researcher to conduct a thorough quantitative analysis to assess the correlation between mentoring and job satisfaction. The Midwest institution of higher education was a small regional school that lacked diversity with a total faculty participation completion rate of 28%. Although the institution meets the national average of 5%-8% ethnic minorities employed, the total faculty population is not large enough to

yield samples to conduct adequate correlational evaluations, which is another reason for the recommended inclusion of other institutions of higher education. Also, increasing the sample to include participants from one or more institutions will foster the ability to examine further the relationship among the demographic variables in this study, such as gender, age, employment status, salary, faculty rank, supervisory role, and highest degree earned.

Instrumentation

The third recommendation is to explore the use of other instruments to measure job satisfaction and mentoring. One instrument to explore is Dr. Paul Spector's (2020) Job Satisfaction Survey 2 (JSS-2) that is solely for commercial use and available upon the purchase of a licensing fee. The release of the JSS-2 occurred after the collection of data for this research study. Spector stated that the JSS-2 has enhanced psychometric properties, including improved consistent internal reliability. Future studies are recommended to utilize the JSS-2 to assess job satisfaction as the subsets' internal reliability is above a coefficient alpha of 0.90, which is higher than an average of 0.82 for the original JSS (Spector, 2020). Exploration of the Mentor Evaluation Tool (MET) as an instrument to assess mentoring relationships is also recommended. The MET was released in publications in 2020 by Yukawa and colleagues. The suggestion to explore the MET stems from the author's documented research on the content validity where Berk et al. (2005) did not conduct an analysis of content validity for the MES. The MET contains 13 items with high-reliability ratings.

In addition to utilizing the suggested JSS-2 and MET as quantitative components to assess job satisfaction, the researcher proposes incorporating additional focus group discussions and comprehensive qualitative analysis in an effort to explore the role that demographic variables play in the job satisfaction of faculty regarding their mentoring experiences. A

thorough mixed-methods approach for future research to gather robust quantitative and qualitative data to better assess the association between mentoring and job satisfaction of faculty members in higher education is suggested.

Expansion of the Research Variables: Mentoring and Job Satisfaction

A fourth recommendation is to consider the intrinsic and extrinsic factors of job satisfaction in relation to mentoring. The current study only examined job satisfaction as a construct and did not consider the participants' motivating factors such as emotional state when the participant completed the questionnaire or participated in the focus group discussion and their satisfaction with life outside of their work environment and its impact on their responses. Herzberg's Two Factor Theory as a theoretical framework for future job satisfaction research should be explored. The importance of researching intrinsic and extrinsic factors is of interest to the researcher to further evaluate the impact of emotional needs (i.e., intrinsic) and organizational requirements (i.e., extrinsic) on faculty members. Intrinsic motivators tend to increase motivation, and extrinsic motivators are expected, so motivation declines if intrinsic and extrinsic motivators are absent (Herzberg et al., 2010). Disaggregating the JSS or JSS-2 subsets into Herzberg's (2010) Classification Theory's intrinsic and extrinsic factors should be explored. The exploration of Herzberg's Classification Theory may reveal a correlational association between job satisfaction and mentorship. Another aspect of interest relating to intrinsic and extrinsic factors is if the contentment or discontentment from the faculty's personal life is infiltrating their perception of job satisfaction.

Financial Considerations

The fifth recommendation is to continue to explore the phenomenon that (a) mentoring relationships increase job satisfaction; (b) in turn, decreasing faculty attrition rates; and (c) which

financially benefits the institution by diminishing the expenditures associated with the hiring process. The participating higher education institution previously faced an approximate 20% budget reduction over the past two legislative sessions and is possibly facing an additional reduction of up to 11% depending on the current legislative session's outcome. The focus group participants indicated that novice faculty members use the participating institution as a career steppingstone and resign their position after achieving their goals, increasing the rate of hires for the university. Considering the economic uncertainties of higher education institutions and the recent COVID-19 pandemic, it is a fiduciary responsibility to explore strategies to reduce faculty attrition rates.

Conclusion

The study was designed to assess the impact of mentoring on job satisfaction at a Midwest institution of higher education. An online questionnaire that contained a combined instrument including demographic questions, Assessing Mentoring Relationships, the Mentorship Effectiveness Scale, and the Job Satisfaction Survey was utilized. The quantitative data were supplemented with a qualitative question on the questionnaire and a focus group discussion.

The quantitative outcome did not show a statistically significant correlation between the two main research variables: mentoring (i.e., predictor variable), and job satisfaction (i.e., outcome variable). However, the qualitative findings and the descriptive quantitative data strongly implied that unofficial mentoring existed, faculty members valued mentorship, and mentoring positively influenced job satisfaction.

Edwin Locke's 1976 Range of Affect Theory served as the theoretical framework for this research study. The theory proposes the idea that "job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive

emotional state from the appraisal of one's job or experience" (p. 1300). Understanding all the satisfaction elements and their contributions to a pleasurable or positive emotional state is a large-scale undertaking when considering the various demographic variables and possible individual emotional responses. Nevertheless, the Midwest institution of higher education's faculty members indicated they are generally satisfied with their current work environment. Considering the job satisfaction scores were not perfect, the researcher evaluated the areas of weakness and provided recommendations for practice to enhance faculty job satisfaction. In addition, the strong evidence indicated that faculty valued mentoring, found mentoring effective, and revealed mentoring impacted job satisfaction. The findings reaffirm the need for future research suggestions to evaluate to what extent mentoring impacts job satisfaction.

Higher education institutions can use the results of this study to evaluate the need for formal or informal mentoring relationships in an effort to strengthen job satisfaction. Mentoring relationships are built on trust, camaraderie, collaborative connections, and compassionate communities. The study suggested that effective mentoring could improve faculty satisfaction, retention, productivity, and student learning within higher education institutions through the qualitative data, qualitative responses from the questionnaire, and the descriptive quantitative findings.

REFERENCES

- Albert, C., Davia, M. A., & Legazpe, N. (2018). Job satisfaction amongst academics: The role of research productivity. *Studies in Higher Education*, 43(8), 1362-1377.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2016.1255937>
- Anafarta, A., & Apaydin, C. (2016). The effect of faculty mentoring on career success and career satisfaction. *International Education Studies*, 9(6), 22-31.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ies.v9n6p22>
- August, L., & Waltman, J. (2004). Culture, climate, and contribution: Career satisfaction among female faculty. *Research in Higher Education*, 45(2), 177–192.
<http://web.b.ebscohost.com.trmproxy.mnpals.net/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=5&sid=5a0cefd0-87ae-4233-8344-b991f60fa719%40sessionmgr102>
- Bateh, J., & Heyliger, W. (2014). Academic administrator leadership styles and the impact on faculty job satisfaction. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 13(3), 34-49. <https://doi:10.12806/V13/I3/R3>
- Berk, R., Berg, J., Mortimer, R., Walton-Moss, B., & Yeo, T. (2005). Measuring the effectiveness of faculty mentoring relationships. *Academic Medicine*, 80(1), 66-71.
<http://www.indiana.edu/~acoustic/s685/berk-effective-mentor.pdf>
- Bichsel, J., McChesney, J., College and University Professional Association for Human Resources (CUPA-HR). (2017). The gender pay gap and the representation of women in higher education administrative positions: The century so far. A CUPA-HR research brief. *College and University Professional Association for Human Resources*. 1-16.
https://www.cupahr.org/wp-content/uploads/cupahr_research_brief_1.pdf

- Blake-Beard, S. (2009). Mentoring as a bridge to understanding cultural difference. *Adult Learning, 20*(1-2), 14-23. <https://doi.org/10.1177/104515950902000104>
- Bozeman, B., & Gaughan, M. (2011). Job satisfaction among university faculty: Individual, work, and institutional determinants. *The Journal of Higher Education, 82*(2), 154-186. <http://web.b.ebscohost.com.trmproxy.mnpals.net/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=8&sid=5a0cefd0-87ae-4233-8344-b991f60fa719%40sessionmgr102>
- Buller, J. L. (2015). *Change leadership in higher education: A practical guide to academic transformation*. Jossey-Bass.
- Bujang, M. A. & Baharum, N. (2016). Sample size guideline for correlation analysis. *World Journal of Social Science Research, 3*(1), 37-46. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/310735983_Sample_Size_Guideline_for_Correlation_Analysis
- Bynum, Y. P. (2015). The power of informal mentoring. *Education, 136*(1), 69-73. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1095540>
- Christie, H. (2014). Peer mentoring in higher education: Issues of power and control. *Teaching in Higher Education, 19*(8), 955-965. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2014.934355>
- Creswell, J. W. and Poth, C. N. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Crisci, A., Sepe, E., & Malafronte, P. (2019). What influences teachers' job satisfaction and how to improve, develop and reorganize the school activities associated with them. *Quality & Quantity, 53*, 2403-2419. <https://link-springer-com.trmproxy.mnpals.net/article/10.1007/s11135-018-0749-y>

- Decramer, A., Smolders, C., Vanderstraeten, A. (2013). Employee performance management culture and system features in higher education: relationship with employee performance management satisfaction. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(2), 352–371. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2012.680602>
- Dugguh, S. I. & Ayaga, D. (2014). Job satisfaction theories: Traceability to employee performance in organizations. *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, 16(5), 11-18. <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/bb50/91f61cbd4a024add34d032b4bb0951015de2.pdf>
- Durbin, D. R., House, S. C., Meagher, E. A., & Rogers, J. G. (2019). The role of mentors in addressing issues of work-life integration in an academic research environment. *Journal of Clinical Translational Science*, 3(6), 302-307. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6886003/>
- Fain, L. Z., & Zachary, L. J. (2020). *Bridging differences for better mentoring* [eBook edition]. Berrett-Koehler.
- Fischler, L. A., & Zachary, L. J. (2009). Shifting gears: The mentee in the driver's seat. *Adult Learning*, 20(1-2), 5-9. <https://doi.org/10.1177/104515950902000102>
- Flaherty, C. (2021). Illusion of inclusion. *Inside Higher Ed*. <https://www.insidehighered.com/news/2021/01/06/faculty-members-color-see-illusion-inclusion>
- Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (8th ed.). McGraw-Hill.
- Fu, W., & Deshpande, S. P. (2014). The impact of caring climate, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on job performance of employees in China's insurance

company. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 124, 339-349. <https://doi: 10.1007/s10551-013-1876-y>

Galanek, J. D. & Campbell, S. (2019). Mentoring in higher education IT. *Research Report*.

Louisville, CO: ECAR. <https://library.educause.edu/-/media/files/library/2019/8/hement19.pdf?la=en&hash=C26BD27CE25EB29AB911B46CA689D1BA949C852E>

Gaskin, L. P., Lumpkin, A., & Tennant (2003). Mentoring new faculty in higher education.

Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance, 74(8). 49-53.

<https://trmproxy.mnpals.net/login?url=https://search-proquest-com.trmproxy.mnpals.net/docview/215760724?accountid=12548>

George, D., & Mallery, M. (2010). SPSS for windows step by step: A simple guide and reference, 17.0 update (10a ed.). Pearson.

Helms, R. (2010). New challenges, new priorities: The experience of generation x faculty.

Collaborative on Academic Careers in Higher Education. 1-24.

https://coache.gse.harvard.edu/files/gse-coache/files/coache_genx-newchallengesnewpriorities_2010.pdf?m=1456518493

Hersch, J. & Xiao, J. (2016). Sex, race, and job satisfaction among highly educated workers.

Southern Economic Journal, 83(1), 1-24. doi:10.2307/26632323

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. B. (2010). *The motivation to work*. Transaction Publishers.

Hole, G. (n.d.). Correlation interpretation: Eight things you need to know about interpreting correlations. *Research Skills One*. 1-9.

<http://users.sussex.ac.uk/~grahamh/RM1web/Eight%20things%20you%20need%20to%20know%20about%20interpreting%20correlations.pdf>

Holt, D. T., Markova, G., Dhaenens, A. J., Marler, L. E., & Heilmann, S. G. (2016). Formal or informal mentoring: What drives employees to seek informal mentors?. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 28(1-2), 67-82.

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/322675237_Formal_or_Informal_Mentoring_What_Drive_Employees_to_Seek_Informal_Mentors

Indeed. (2019). What is the difference between a job and a career?.

<https://www.indeed.com/career-advice/finding-a-job/difference-between-a-job-and-a-career>

James, J. M., Rayner, A., & Bruno, J. (2015). Are you my mentor? New perspectives and research on informal mentorship. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship*, 41, 532-539.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.acalib.2015.07.009>

Jehanzeb, K., & Mohanty, J. (2018). Impact of employee development on job satisfaction and organizational commitment: Person-organization fit as moderator. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 22(3), 171-191. <https://doi: 10.1111/ijtd.12127>

Johnson, W. B. (2016). *On being a mentor: A guide for higher education faculty* (2nd ed.). Taylor & Francis Group.

Kaiser, K. (2009). Protecting respondent confidentiality in qualitative research. *Qualitative Health Research*, 19(11), 1632-1641. <https://doi: 10.1177/1049732309350879>

Kiel, D. (2019). *Developing faculty mentoring programs: A comprehensive handbook*.

Academic Impressions.

Kram, K. E. (1983). Phases of the mentoring relationship. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26(4), 608-625.

Kram, K. E. (1985). *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life*. Scott Foresman and Company.

Krueger, R. A., & Casey, M. (2015). *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research* (5th ed.). SAGE Publications.

Kupersmidt, J., Stelter, R., Garringer, M., Mayhew, J. (2019). Workplace mentoring:

Supplement to the elements of effective practice for mentoring. *Mentor*.

https://www.mentoring.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/01/Workplace-Supplement-to-EEPM_Public.pdf

Leck, J. D. & Wood, P. M. (2013). Forming trust in e-mentoring: A research agenda. *American Journal of Industrial and Business Management*, 3, 101-109.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ajibm.2013.31013>

Lexico. (n.d.). Retrieved on January 13, 2020, from

<https://www.lexico.com/en/definition/satisfaction>

Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M.D. Dunnette (Ed.),

Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology (pp. 1297–1349). Rand McNally.

Lunsford, L. G., Crisp, G., Dolan, E. L., & Wuetherick, B. (2017). Mentoring in higher

education. In D. A. Clutterbuck, F. Kochan, L. G. Lunsford, N. Dominguez, and J.

Haddock-Millar (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Mentoring* (pp. 316-334). SAGE

Publications LTD.

Mack, D., Watson, E. D., & Camacho, M. M. (2013). *Mentoring faculty of color*. McFarland.

Manathunga, C. (2007). Supervision as mentoring: The role of power and boundary crossing.

Studies in Continuing Education, 29(2), 207-221.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/01580370701424650>

McLaughlin, C. (2010). Mentoring: what is it? How do we do it and how do we get more of

it?. *Health Services Research*, 45(3), 871–884. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475->

[6773.2010.01090.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-6773.2010.01090.x)

Miller, M. T., Mamiseishvili, K., & Lee, D. (2016). Administrative hierarchy and faculty work:

Examining faculty satisfaction with academic leadership. *Journal of Academic*

Administration in Higher Education, 12(1), 1-7.

<https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1139133.pdf>

National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine; Policy and Global Affairs; Board

on Higher Education and Workforce; Committee on Effective Mentoring in STEMM

(2019). The science of mentoring relationships: What is mentorship? (M. L. Dahlberg &

A. Byars-Winston, Eds.). *The Science of Effective Mentorship in STEMM*.

<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK552775/>

Office of Planning, Evaluation and Policy Development (2016). Advancing diversity and

inclusion in higher education. *Office of the Under Secretary: U.S. Department of*

Education. <https://www2.ed.gov/rschstat/research/pubs/advancing-diversity-inclusion.pdf>

Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1985). Cognitive vs affect in measures of job satisfaction.

International Journal of Psychology, 20(2), 241-253. <https://doi:>

[10.1080/00207598508247735](https://doi.org/10.1080/00207598508247735)

- Ott, M., & Cisneros, J. (2015). Understanding the changing faculty workforce in higher education: A comparison of full-time non-tenure track and tenure line experiences. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 23(90), 1-28. <http://cord.asu.edu/wp-content/uploads/2015/02/Ott-M.-Cisneros-J.-2015.-.pdf>
- Palinkas, L. A., Horwitz, S.M., Green, C. A., Wisdom, J. P., Duan, N., & Hoagwood, K. (2015). Purposeful sampling for qualitative data collection and analysis in mixed method implementation research. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health*, 42(5), 533-544. <https://doi:10.1007/s10488-013-0528-y>
- Pfund, C., Byars-Winston, A., Branchaw, J., Hurtado, S., & Eagan, K. (2016). Defining attributes and metrics of effective research mentoring relationships. *AIDS Behavior*, 20(2), 238-248. <https://doi: 10:1007/s10461-016-1384-z>
- Phillips, S. L., & Dennison, S. T. (2015). *Faculty mentoring: A practical manual for mentors, mentees, administrators, and faculty developers*. Stylus Publishing, LLC.
- Ragins, B. R., & Kram, K. (2007). The roots and meaning of mentoring. In B. R. Ragins, & K. Kram (Eds.). *The Handbook of Mentoring at Work: Theory, Research, and Practice* (pp. 3-15). Sage.
- Rajashi, G. & Reio, T. G. (2013). Career benefits associated with mentoring for mentors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 83(1). 106-116. <https://www-sciencedirect-com.trmproxy.mnpals.net/science/article/pii/S0001879113001012>
- Rosser, V. J. (2004). Faculty members' intentions to leave: A national study on their worklife and satisfaction. *Research in Higher Education*, 45(3), 285-309. <http://eds.a.ebscohost.com.trmproxy.mnpals.net/eds/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=2&sid=8ad9fd09-e2e5-4b4c-8138-605a3375f76c%40sessionmgr4006>

- Rousseeuw, P. J. & Hubert, M. (2017). Anomaly detection by robust statistics. *WIREs Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery*. Wiley Periodicals, Inc.
<https://arxiv.org/pdf/1707.09752.pdf>
- Sabharwal, M. & Corley, E. A. (2009). Faculty job satisfaction across gender and discipline. *The Social Science Journal*, 46, 539-556. <https://cord.asu.edu/sites/default/files/wp-content/uploads/2015/11/Faculty-job-satisfaction-across-gender-and-discipline1.pdf>
- Sahl, A. (2017). The importance of faculty appreciation and recognition: A case study of one institution. *Humboldt Journal of Social Relations*, 39, 246-259.
https://www.academia.edu/33082371/The_Importance_of_Faculty_Appreciation_and_Recognition_A_Case_Study_of_One_Institution
- Saleh, A., & Bista, K. (2014). Assessing faculty perceptions of campus climate at a mid-southern university. *Review of Higher Education and Self-Learning*, 7(25), 101-116.
<http://web.b.ebscohost.com.trmproxy.mnpals.net/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=3&sid=70833b11-9412-4637-9ed9-4232654b3f68%40sessionmgr104>
- Schober, P., Boer, C., & Schwarte, L. A. (2018). Correlation coefficients: Appropriate use and interpretation. *Anesthesia & Analgesia*, 126(5), 1763-1768. [https://doi:10.1213/ANE.0000000000002864](https://doi.org/10.1213/ANE.0000000000002864)
- Searby, L. (2009). “But I thought. ...” An examination of assumptions in the mentoring relationship. *Adult Learning*. 20(1-2), 10-13.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/104515950902000103>
- Seifert, T. A., & Umbach, P. D. (2008). The effects of faculty demographic characteristics and disciplinary context on dimensions of job satisfaction. *Research in Higher Education*, 49, 357–381. <https://doi:10.1007/s11162-007-9084-1>

- Sheets, J. K. E., Barnhardt, C. L., Phillips, C. W., & Valdés, P. H. (2018). The impact of faculty work-life factors on faculty service morale. *Journal of Faculty Development*, 32(2), 53-65.
- Sheridan, L., Murdoch, N. H., & Harder, E. (2015). Assessing mentoring culture: Faculty and staff perceptions, gaps, and strengths. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, 45(4), 423-439. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1086840.pdf>
- Siegel, P. H., Shultz, T., & Landy, S. (2011). Formal versus informal mentoring of MAS professionals. *The Journal of Applied Business Research*, 27(2), 5-11.
<https://trmproxy.mnpals.net/login?url=https://search-proquest-com.trmproxy.mnpals.net/docview/858885972?accountid=12548>
- Siegle, D. (2015). *Educational research basics*.
<https://researchbasics.education.uconn.edu/correlation/>
- Singh, M. P., & Sinha, J. (2013). Job satisfaction in organizational executives. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, 3(4).1-6. www.ijsrp.org
- Spector, P. E. (1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the job satisfaction survey. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 13(6), 693-713.
<http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~pspector/scales/ajcp85-jss.pdf>
- Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes and consequences*. Sage.
- Spector, P. E. (2020). Job satisfaction survey. <http://paulspector.com/scales/our-assessments/job-satisfaction-survey-jss/>

- Stankovska, G., Angelkoska, S., Osmani, F., & Grncarovska, S. P. (2017). Job motivation and job satisfaction among academic staff in higher education. *Current Business and Economics Driven Discourse and Education: Perspectives from Around the World*, 15, 159-166. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED574225.pdf>
- Tarigan, V., & Ariani, D. W. (2015). Empirical study relations job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. *Advances in Management and Applied Economics*, 5(2), 21-42. <https://trmproxy.mnpals.net/login?url=https://search-proquest-com.trmproxy.mnpals.net/docview/1664818489?accountid=12548>
- Tessema, M. T., Ready, K. J., Embaye, A. B. (2013). The effects of employee recognition, pay, and benefits on job satisfaction: Cross country evidence. *Journal of Business and Economics*, 4(1), 1-12. <http://www.academicstar.us>
- Waltman, J., Bergom, I., Hollenshead, C., Miller, J., August, L. (2012). Factors contributing to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among non-tenure-track faculty. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 83(3), 411-434.
<http://eds.a.ebscohost.com.trmproxy.mnpals.net/eds/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=2&sid=9d2063f1-ded0-4d14-9061-6a891d30dea0%40sessionmgr4010>
- Waddell, J., Martin, J., Scwind, J. K., & Lapum, J. L. (2016). A faculty-based mentorship circle: Positioning new faculty for success. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, 46(4), 60-75. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1128609.pdf>
- Webber, K. L. & Rogers, S. M. (2018). Gender differences in faculty member job satisfaction: Equity forestalled?. *Research in Higher Education*, 59, 1105-1132.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-018-9494-2>

- Yucel, I., & Bektas, C. (2012). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment and demographic characteristics among teachers in Turkey: Younger is better?. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, 1598–608. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.05.346>
- Yukawa, M., Gansky, S. A., O’Sullivan, P., Teherani, A., and Feldman, M. D. (2020). A new Mentor Evaluation Tool: Evidence of validity. *PLOS One*, 15(6).
<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0234345>
- Zachary, L. J. (2005). *Creating a mentoring culture: The organization’s guide*. Jossey-Bass.
- Zachary, L. J. (2009). Examining and expanding mentoring practices. *Adult Learning*, 20(1-2), 4.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/104515950902000101>
- Zachary, L. J. (2012). *The mentor’s guide: Facilitating effective learning relationships* (2nd Ed.). Jossey-Bass.

APPENDIX A

IRB Approvals

| | |
|--------------------------------|---|
| Date: | 8/16/19 |
| Principal Investigator: | Ximena Suarez-Sousa |
| Co-Investigator(s): | Rachelle Hunt |
| Title of Study: | Assessing the influence of mentorship on faculty job satisfaction in higher education |

Thank you for submitting your IRB Exempt Status Proposal. Your proposal has been reviewed and approved **Exempt research** under 45 CFR 46.104. You may proceed with your study after August 16, 2019.

The IRB will not conduct subsequent reviews of this protocol unless changes to the protocol occur. Any changes to the protocol will require a formal application to, and approval of, the IRB prior to implementation of the change. IRB applications are available on the Minnesota State University Moorhead IRB webpage: <https://www.mnstate.edu/irb/>

Best of Luck to you with your research!



APPENDIX B
EMAIL INVITATIONS TO FACULTY LISTSERV
DOCTORAL RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE REQUEST

Dear Colleague,

I hope this email finds you well. I am Rachelle Hunt, an associate professor in the Department of Kinesiology at Valley City State University and a doctoral candidate from Minnesota State University Moorhead in Educational Leadership.

You are invited to join a research study **assessing mentorship's influence on faculty job satisfaction in higher education** by completing the online Doctoral Research Questionnaire via Qualtrics. The questionnaire is available through **Wednesday, November 4th**.

The purpose of this study is to support faculty in achieving work-life balance as well as professional career advice and nurture an academic presence that supports, develops, and further advances faculty members' professional skills to feel part of an inviting community.

Your position and experience as a faculty member in higher education give you the expertise and makes you the ideal candidate to participate in this important research study. Please consider completing the 15-minute online Doctoral Research Questionnaire, which contains 65 quick response questions and one (1) open-ended question.

The complete informed consent letter and acceptance to participate are available upon entering the Doctoral Research Questionnaire. Consent must be given to continue with the questionnaire and may discontinue participation at any time.

Participants completing the questionnaire are given the opportunity to contribute further in a small focus group discussion. Focus group participants will be confidential.

The primary investigator for my project is **Ximena Suarez-Sousa, Ph.D.** Dr. Suarez-Sousa can be contacted at suarez@mnstate.edu or by phone at 218.477.2007. I can be contacted at rachelle.hunt@vcsu.edu or by phone at 701.840.5018.

Any questions about your rights may be directed to **Lisa Karch, Ph.D.**, Chair of the MSUM Institutional Review Board, at 218.477.2699 or by lisa.karch@mnstate.edu.

I sincerely thank you for your consideration to participate. I look forward to the possibility of working with you on this important research study.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Rachelle Hunt

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION EMAIL REQUEST

Thank you for your willingness to participate in Focus Group portion of my doctoral research endeavor. I sincerely appreciate your time and contribution. Please take a look at the Doodle Poll and select all of the times, in the next two weeks, that would work for you to meet via a video conferencing platform for no longer than 60 minutes. If the times suggested do not work for you, please email me times and days that work into your schedule. I value your participation.

Thank you and please let me know if you have any questions.

Rachelle Hunt

APPENDIX C

INFORMED CONSENT

Study Title: Assessing the Influence of Mentorship on Faculty Job Satisfaction in Higher Education

You are invited to join a research study assessing the influence of mentorship on faculty job satisfaction in higher education. Please take your time reviewing the purpose of the study, time commitment, and additional details before agreeing to participate. The decision to participate is yours and I thank you for your consideration.

Purpose of the study: The purpose of this research is to explore the influence of mentorship on faculty job satisfaction in higher education.

How long will the questionnaire take? You may complete the Qualtrics questionnaire at your convenience within the available timeframe. The questionnaire includes demographic information and questions assessing your perception of mentorship and job satisfaction. It should take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

What will I do as a participant? Participants are asked to complete the online questionnaire (i.e., survey) which contains 66 items. The questionnaire contains 65 quick response questions and one (1) open-ended question. The questionnaire is divided into three sections. The first section asks you general demographic questions and also includes questions regarding your employment and the importance of mentoring relationships. The second section focuses on your perception of mentoring effectiveness. The third section concentrates on questions assessing job satisfaction. The very last item on the questionnaire asks you to consider volunteering to participate in a focus group. Completing the questionnaire does not obligate you to participate in the focus group.

Risks: I encourage you to ask questions at any point in time. No known risks are associated with this study and your participation. The expected benefits will provide awareness to gaps in mentoring and the effect on faculty job satisfaction.

Confidentiality and data security: I will not disclose your participation in this study, and your identity will remain anonymous. Data collection documents are secured via encryption methods and housed on the researcher's computer. Only the researcher has access to computer passwords and encrypted documents. You will have the option to download your responses after completing the questionnaire.

At the end of the survey, you will be invited to participate in a focus group. The purpose of the focus group discussion is to gather quotes on participants' opinions. The focus group discussion should take approximately one hour to complete during a recorded virtual conference session.

If you choose to provide contact information such as your email address, your survey responses may no longer be anonymous to the researcher. However, the researcher will not include any identifying information in any publications or presentations based on these data and your responses to this survey will remain confidential.

Participation in this study is voluntary. You have the right not to participate at all or leave the study at any time. Deciding not to participate or choosing to leave the study will not result in any penalty or discrimination in the workplace, and it will not harm your relationship with the researcher. You are also entitled to a copy of the Informed Consent.

If you have any questions regarding the study, at any point in time, please contact:

Rachelle Hunt, M.Ed., LAT, ATC

Co-Investigator

Ph. 701.840.5018

Email: huntra@mnstate.edu

Ximena P. Suarez-Sousa, Ph.D.

Principal Investigator

Associate Professor, Department of Leadership & Learning, Lommen 211C

Minnesota State University Moorhead

Ph. 218.477.2007

Email: suarez@mnstate.edu

Any questions about your rights may be directed to **Lisa Karch, Ph.D.**, Chair of the MSUM Institutional Review Board, at 218.477.2699 or by lisa.karch@mnstate.edu

I sincerely thank you for your consideration to participate. I look forward to the possibility of working with you on this important research study.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Rachelle Hunt, M.Ed., LAT, ATC

Acceptance to Participate:

Selecting *I understand and consent to participate* acts as your signature indicating you read the information provided above and consent to participate. You may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty after providing consent to participate.

- *I understand and consent to participate*
- *I do not consent to participate*

APPENDIX D

Study Instrumentation (Disseminated electronically via Qualtrics Survey Software)

| Question | Answer Options |
|---|--|
| 1. What gender do you identify? | Female Male Non-binary Prefer not to answer |
| 2. What is your age? | Sliding scale 18-100 |
| 3. What is your ethnicity? | African American Asian American Hispanic or Latino Pacific Islander Native American or American Indian White Two or more Other (enter your ethnicity) Prefer not to answer |
| 4. What is your relationship status? | Single Married Divorced Other _____ |
| 5. Years teaching in higher education, regardless of employing institution (If this is your first year, please select “1”, etc.). | Sliding scale from 1 to 60 |

| Question | Answer Options |
|---|---|
| 6. Years at your current Institution (If this is your first year, please select “1” etc.) | Sliding scale from 1- 60 |
| 7. Please identify the highest degree you hold. | Associate degree Bachelor’s degree Master’s degree Doctorate Ed.D. Doctorate: Ph.D. Doctorate: Other (please specify) Other Degree (please specify) |
| 8. What is your current employment status? | Special Appointment (non-tenure track) Tenure-track (pre-tenure or probationary) Tenured Other (please specify) |
| 9. What is your current faculty rank? | Instructor Assistant Professor Associate Professor Professor Other (please specify) |

| Question | Answer Options |
|--|--|
| 10. How many years at your current faculty rank? (If this is your first year at this rank, please select “1” etc.) | Sliding scale from 1 to 60 |
| 11. What is your annual base salary? (salary listed on Annual Contract) | \$0 - \$29,999 \$30,000 - \$39,999 \$40,000 - \$44,999 \$45,001 - \$49,999 \$50,000 - \$59,999 \$60,000 - \$69,999 \$70,000 - \$79,999 \$80,000 - \$89,999 \$90,000 - \$99,999 \$100,000+ |
| 12. What is your supervisory role? | Department Chair Program Director Other (please specify) Not Applicable |

| Question | Answer Options |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| 13. What department do you teach in? | Art Business Communication Arts Computer Systems and Software Engineering Kinesiology and Human Performance Language & Literature Mathematics Music Science Social Science Technology Education School of Education & Graduate Studies |

Assessing Mentoring Relationships

Instructions: This section includes questions relating to your experience with mentoring relationships as the mentee. Please answer the following questions as they relate to your experience.

Please use the following definitions when assessing your mentoring relationships as the person receiving the mentoring:

Definition of Mentoring Relationships:

A mentoring relationship occurs when a faculty member with useful experience, knowledge, skills, and/or wisdom offers advice, information, guidance, support, or opportunity to another faculty member for that individual's professional growth.

Informal Mentoring Relationship:

A relationship that occurs naturally among peers when two or more colleagues make a connection, build trust and rapport, and provide reciprocal professional and personal support. These relationships do not need a formal title of mentor or mentee. These relationships resemble friendships.

Formal Mentoring Relationship:

A relationship that consists of a formally organized program with defined expectations and outcomes and by assigning a mentor-mentee relationship generating a process-oriented or product-oriented relationship.

| | Assessing Mentoring Relationships Questions | Response Options |
|----|---|---------------------|
| 1. | In general, I consider mentoring relationships valuable in the workplace. | Yes/No |
| 2. | An informal or formal mentoring relationship exists between me and at least one other individual on or off campus (faculty, staff, administration, and/or other). | Yes/No |
| 3. | The informal or formal mentoring relationship is valuable to me. | Yes/No |
| 4. | Please describe the elements of a mentoring relationship that are meaningful or provide value for you, regardless if you have an informal or formal mentoring relationship. | Open-ended question |
| 5. | The mentoring relationship, regardless of informal or formal, contributes to my job satisfaction. | Yes/No |

MENTORSHIP EFFECTIVENESS SCALE

Directions: The purpose of this scale is to evaluate the mentoring characteristics of _____, who has identified you as an individual with whom he/she has had a professional, mentor/mentee relationship. Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement listed below. Circle the letters that correspond to your response. Your responses will be kept confidential.

| | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------|
| SD = Strongly Disagree | SLD = Slightly Disagree | SA = Strongly Agree |
| | SLA = Slightly Agree | |
| D = Disagree | A = Agree | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|----|---|-----|-----|---|----|
| 1. My mentor was accessible. | SD | D | SLD | SLA | A | SA |
| 2. My mentor demonstrated professional integrity. | SD | D | SLD | SLA | A | SA |
| 3. My mentor demonstrated content expertise in my area of need. | SD | D | SLD | SLA | A | SA |
| 4. My mentor was approachable. | SD | D | SLD | SLA | A | SA |
| 5. My mentor was supportive and encouraging. | SD | D | SLD | SLA | A | SA |
| 6. My mentor provided constructive and useful critiques of my work. | SD | D | SLD | SLA | A | SA |
| 7. My mentor motivated me to improve my work product. | SD | D | SLD | SLA | A | SA |
| 8. My mentor was helpful in providing direction and guidance on professional issues. (e.g., networking). | SD | D | SLD | SLA | A | SA |
| 9. My mentor answered my questions satisfactorily (e.g., timely response, clear, comprehensive). | SD | D | SLD | SLA | A | SA |
| 10. My mentor acknowledged my contributions appropriately (e.g., committee contributions, awards). | SD | D | SLD | SLA | A | SA |
| 11. My mentor suggested appropriate resources (e.g., experts, electronic contacts, source materials). | SD | D | SLD | SLA | A | SA |
| 12. My mentor challenged me to extend my abilities (e.g., risk taking, try a new professional activity, draft a section of an article). | SD | D | SLD | SLA | A | SA |

| | | |
|----|--|--|
| | <p align="center">JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY® Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida <small>Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.</small></p> | |
| | <p align="center">PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.</p> | <p>SD= Strongly Disagree D= Disagree SLD= Slightly Disagree SLA= Slightly Agree A= Agree SA= Strongly Agree</p> |
| 1 | I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 2 | There is really too little chance for promotion on my job. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 3 | My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 4 | I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 5 | When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 6 | Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 7 | I like the people I work with. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 8 | I sometimes feel my job is meaningless. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 9 | Communications seem good within this organization. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 10 | Raises are too few and far between. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 11 | Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 12 | My supervisor is unfair to me. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 13 | The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 14 | I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 15 | My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 16 | I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 17 | I like doing the things I do at work. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 18 | The goals of this organization are not clear to me. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |

| | | |
|----|---|--|
| | <p>PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.</p> <p>Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.</p> | <p>SD= Strongly Disagree D= Disagree SLD= Slightly Disagree SLA= Slightly Agree A= Agree SA= Strongly Agree</p> |
| 19 | I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 20 | People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 21 | My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 22 | The benefit package we have is equitable. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 23 | There are few rewards for those who work here. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 24 | I have too much to do at work. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 25 | I enjoy my coworkers. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 26 | I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 27 | I feel a sense of pride in doing my job. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 28 | I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 29 | There are benefits we do not have which we should have. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 30 | I like my supervisor. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 31 | I have too much paperwork. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 32 | I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 33 | I am satisfied with my chances for promotion. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 34 | There is too much bickering and fighting at work. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 35 | My job is enjoyable. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |
| 36 | Work assignments are not fully explained. | SD D SLD SLA A SA |

APPENDIX E

Instructions for Scoring the Job Satisfaction Survey, JSS®

Paul E. Spector

The Job Satisfaction Survey or JSS, has some of its items written in each direction--positive and negative. Scores on each of nine facet subscales, based on 4 items each, can range from 4 to 24; while scores for total job satisfaction, based on the sum of all 36 items, can range from 36 to 216. Each item is scored from 1 to 6 if the original response choices are used. High scores on the scale represent job satisfaction, so the scores on the negatively worded items must be reversed before summing with the positively worded into facet or total scores. A score of 6 representing strongest agreement with a negatively worded item is considered equivalent to a score of 1 representing strongest disagreement on a positively worded item, allowing them to be combined meaningfully. Below is the step-by-step procedure for scoring.

1. Responses to the items should be numbered from 1 representing strongest disagreement to 6 representing strongest agreement with each. This assumes that the scale has not be modified and the original agree-disagree response choices are used.

2. The negatively worded items should be reverse scored. Below are the reversals for the original item score in the left column and reversed item score in the right. The rightmost values should be substituted for the leftmost. This can also be accomplished by subtracting the original values for the internal items from 7.

$$1 = 6$$

$$2 = 5$$

$$3 = 4$$

$$4 = 3$$

$$5 = 2$$

$$6 = 1$$

3. Negatively worded items are 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 19, 21, 23, 24, 26, 29, 31, 32, 34, 36. Note the reversals are NOT every other one.

4. Sum responses to 4 items for each facet score and all items for total score after the reversals from step 2. Items go into the subscales as shown in the table.

| Subscale | Item numbers |
|----------------------|---------------|
| Pay | 1, 10, 19, 28 |
| Promotion | 2, 11, 20, 33 |
| Supervision | 3, 12, 21, 30 |
| Fringe benefits | 4, 13, 22, 29 |
| Contingent rewards | 5, 14, 23, 32 |
| Operating procedures | 6, 15, 24, 31 |
| Coworkers | 7, 16, 25, 34 |
| Nature of work | 8, 17, 27, 35 |
| Communication | 9, 18, 26, 36 |
| Total satisfaction | 1-36 |

5. If some items are missing you must make an adjustment otherwise the score will be too low. The best procedure is to compute the mean score per item for the individual, and substitute that mean for missing items. For example, if a person does not make a response to 1 item, take

the total from step 4, divide by the number answered or 3 for a facet or 35 for total, and substitute this number for the missing item by adding it to the total from step 4. An easier but less accurate procedure is to substitute a middle response for each of the missing items. Since the center of the scale is between 3 and 4, either number could be used. One should alternate the two numbers as missing items occur.

APPENDIX F

Interpreting Satisfaction Scores with the Job Satisfaction Survey®

I am frequently asked how to interpret scores on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). The JSS assesses job satisfaction on a continuum from low (dissatisfied) to high (satisfied). There are no specific cut scores that determine whether an individual is satisfied or dissatisfied, in other words, we cannot confidently conclude that there is a particular score that is the dividing line between satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Where there is a need to draw conclusions about satisfaction versus dissatisfaction for samples or individuals, two approaches can be used.

The normative approach would compare the target person/sample to the norms for the sample. My website provides norms for several different groups. One can reference the norms and describe given individuals/samples as being more satisfied, dissatisfied, or about the same as the norms. These norms are limited in three ways. First, there are a small number of occupations and organizations represented. Second, the norms are not from representative samples, but rather are an accumulation of mostly convenience samples people send me. In other words, they are a convenience sample of convenience samples. Third, the norms are mainly from North America—Canada and the U.S. Mean levels of job satisfaction varies across countries, so one should not assume these norms are representative of other countries, particularly those that are culturally dissimilar from North America.

The absolute approach picks some logical, if arbitrary cut scores to represent dissatisfaction versus satisfaction. Given the JSS uses 6-point agree-disagree response choices, we can assume that agreement with positively-worded items and disagreement with negatively-worded items would represent satisfaction, whereas disagreement with positive-worded items, and agreement with negative-worded items represents dissatisfaction. For the 4-item subscales,

as well as the 36-item total score, this means that scores with a mean item response (after reverse scoring the negatively-worded items) of 4 or more represents satisfaction, whereas mean responses of 3 or less represents dissatisfaction. Mean scores between 3 and 4 are ambivalence. Translated into the summed scores, for the 4-item subscales with a range from 4 to 24, scores of 4 to 12 are dissatisfied, 16 to 24 are satisfied, and between 12 and 16 are ambivalent. For the 36-item total where possible scores range from 36 to 216, the ranges are 36 to 108 for dissatisfaction, 144 to 216 for satisfaction, and between 108 and 144 for ambivalent.

Job Satisfaction Survey, copyright Paul E. Spector, 1994, All rights reserved.

APPENDIX G

Job Satisfaction Survey Norms

American Norms: Higher Education includes administrators, faculty, support staff

| Facet | Mean | Weighted Mean | Standard Deviation of Means |
|--------------------|-------|---------------|-----------------------------|
| Salary | 11.9 | 12.3 | 1.8 |
| Promotion | 11.5 | 11.9 | 1.6 |
| Supervision | 18.9 | 18.7 | 1.6 |
| Benefits | 15.3 | 15.1 | 1.4 |
| Contingent Rewards | 14.1 | 14.2 | 1.4 |
| Conditions | 13.6 | 13.7 | 1.1 |
| Coworkers | 18.1 | 18.2 | 1.5 |
| Work Itself | 19.7 | 19.7 | 1.3 |
| Communication | 14.6 | 14.6 | 2.1 |
| Total | 137.2 | 137.2 | 8.1 |

Number of Samples = 14, Total Sample Size = 3764

Mean = sum of sample means/number of samples. This represents mean of samples regardless of sample size. Weighted mean is sum of sample means times n per sample/total n . This is the mean of all subjects. Weighted mean is more influenced by large samples.

APPENDIX H

PILOT GROUP QUESTIONS AND RESPONSES

| Questions for Pilot Group to Consider | Pilot Group Participants' Responses |
|--|---|
| 1. Did the instructions make sense regarding how to complete the questionnaire? | <p>"Yes."</p> <p>"Yes, but in the 3rd sentence I think you are missing a word: ...and also includes <u>questions</u> regarding..."</p> |
| 2. How long did it take you to complete the survey? | <p>"20 minutes."</p> <p>"Approximately 15 minutes."</p> <p>"10 minutes."</p> <p>"7 minutes."</p> |
| 3. Did it flow well from one component to another? | <p>"Yes."</p> <p>"Check to see if the % of completion changes."</p> <p>"Questions on benefits and later on bring questions on that topic up again. I was curious if they should be grouped together by topic or if as a researcher you get more honest answers when the topic is brought up several different times."</p> <p>"No, it was a bit confusing jumping from mentoring questions to the job satisfaction survey; could there be a page break with a brief paragraph connection."</p> <p>"Mostly, at first, I didn't see the arrow to move to the next page because it is small. Not sure how that shows on other devices."</p> |
| 4. What did you use to complete the questionnaire: a PC, Mac, cell phone or other mobile device? | <p>"PC x 5"</p> <p>"Mac x3"</p> <p>"iPhone"</p> |

| Questions for Pilot Group to Consider | Pilot Group Participants' Responses |
|---|---|
| 5. Was the request at the end to volunteer for the focus group clear and inviting (in other words, how should it be worded so some will volunteer?)? | <p>“It was friendly. Maybe remind the participant what the focus group entails and considering what may be in it for them. (to be heard, some small token of appreciation, etc.”</p> <p>“Would it help to define the purpose of the focus group?”</p> <p>“You may also add a clear “this is the end of the survey” note before the focus group participation request.”</p> |
| 6. Were there any questions that were unclear (you didn't know how to respond based on what was asked)? | <p>“What does “I have too much paperwork” mean or how does it relate? This question is found on the Job Satisfaction Survey.”</p> <p>“I enjoy my co-workers.” Was possibly on the questionnaire twice.”</p> <p>“Questions were clear; options were not on the two. What does “special appointment” mean? Second, do you care if they are fixed-term, adjunct, etc.? You might have an N/A or other box. Also, many full professors and Associate professors at my school make more than 80,000. Do you want an actual selection from them or would simply over 80 work? I'm not sure how you are using that demographics question so maybe it doesn't matter.”</p> <p>“After the question that asked if you had a mentoring relationship, it asked if that relationship was valuable. But if you answered no to having a mentor, you wouldn't say yes or no to whether the relationship is valuable.”</p> |
| 7. Were there any questions that used confusing terminology (e.g., full-time, part-time, adjunct, workshop vs. course) that need further explanation? | <p>“Everything was clear.”</p> <p>“Some Universities don't have tenure, so I don't know if you want to put an NA category?”</p> |

| Questions for Pilot Group to Consider | Pilot Group Participants' Responses |
|---|--|
| 8. What specific components, phrasing, or questions might create frustration or confusion to the point someone might not finish completion? | <p>“None.”</p> <p>“None.”</p> <p>“Did the mentoring part (main part or your questions), tell people at the beginning that you are asking about them being mentored as opposed to mentoring other?”</p> <p>“It would be helpful if it was cleared up prior to the mentoring pages... do you want me answering as a mentor or mentee? Or does it matter? I’ve been both ... does that make sense? Or, provide them an option and route them to different pages as appropriate?”</p> |
| 9. What other comments or suggestions can you offer re: how to improve this questionnaire? (e.g., were there typos or grammatical errors?) | <p>“Two questions were very similar (I know they are supposed to be different). Mentoring relationships are valuable to me. The mentoring relationship is valuable to me. While I know that they are different, will everyone see the difference?”</p> <p>“Only question is will this only be filled out by those who definitely have a mentoring relationship? If unsure and those who do not need to be weeded out, is that a question that can be upfront so they can be weeded out without filling out the rest of the survey? Or are you looking for a percentage who do not have mentoring relationships? If so, you may want something on the page just about mentoring that allows them to mark NA, either on the page or each question. I'm not sure if that skews the statistics.”</p> |

APPENDIX I

Interview Protocol

Assessing the Influence of Mentorship on Faculty Job Satisfaction in Higher Education

Time of Interview: 2:00 pm – 3:00 pm

Date: December 10, 2020

Place: Virtual Conference

Interviewer: Rachelle Hunt

Interviewees: Five (5) faculty members at the participating Midwest institution of higher education

Position of Interviewee: Special Appointment, Tenure-track, and Tenured faculty members

Brief description of the project: The research project is designed to assess the influence of formal and informal mentoring relationships in relation to job satisfaction for faculty members in higher education. Data are collected via one, one-hour focus group interview by video conferencing.

Questions:

1. What is the importance of mentoring relationships at a Midwest institution of higher education, according to the faculty?
2. What qualities do you look for in an informal or formal mentor?
3. What are your expectations of a meaningful mentoring relationship?
4. In what ways do informal and formal mentoring relationships affect job satisfaction?
5. How do mentoring relationships affect job satisfaction based on faculty status (special appointment, tenure-track, tenured)?

Statement of thanks:

Thank you for participating in the focus group interview process to investigate the importance of mentoring relationships on faculty job satisfaction in higher education. I am happy to discuss the results of the study; however, I will ensure your anonymity. I sincerely appreciate your time and dedication to supporting and contributing to my doctoral research.